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STATISTICS OF FRANCE;

BY

LEWIS GOLDSMITH.

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« L'Empire nous donna la gloire sans modèle. La Restauration nous donna la prospérité sans exemple. La gloire est tombée avec l'Empire, la prospérité est tombée avec la Restauration. »

Speech of M. PAGÈS, *in the Chamber of Deputies*, 16*th January*, 1832.

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LONDON:

J. HATCHARD AND SON, PICCADILLY.

1832.

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Dedication.

TO THE

COUNT DE VILLÈLE,

THIS WORK,

UNDERTAKEN UNDER HIS MINISTERIAL AUSPICES,

AND ADVANCED TO THE STATE IN WHICH IT NOW APPEARS

THROUGH THE FACILITIES FIRST OBTAINED UNDER HIS ADMINISTRATION,

IS,

WITH THE COUNT'S PERMISSION,

RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED,

By his obliged and faithful servant,

THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

It is now eight years since I have written a line which has appeared in print, and all that time I have been out of England; it is therefore with no small share of diffidence that I appear again before my countrymen in my old capacity as an author. I fear that I am almost a stranger to a great portion of the present public; but I feel in some degree encouraged in addressing those who formerly received me with favour.

What gave rise to my present undertaking I shall state in a few words. In the course of conversation in 1825 with M. de Villèle, with whose friendship I have long been honoured, that eminent statesman observed that he was desirous to see a work which would give a faithful account of the resources and industry of France; and as he was well acquainted with the course of my studies during the many years I had resided in

the country, he was so good as to say that he thought me not incompetent to such an undertaking. Thus encouraged, I set to work, persuaded that in making known the statistics of France, my work might in many respects be useful in England. I speak of France during the government of the Bourbons; since then, according to the evidence of facts, as will appear in the course of this publication,

"Chaos is come again."

Of this chaotic confusion I have endeavoured to give an intelligible account: it was no part of my province to reduce it to regularity or order.

The present volume has not exhausted above a fourth part of my materials; should it be favorably received, I shall endeavour, in preparing the remainder for publication, to make the whole more worthy of attention, than I have been able to render this preliminary volume, which has passed through the press during the numerous changes which are incident to a state of revolution.

I commenced my work in 1825, during the ministry of M. de Villèle, and when he quitted office in January 1828, it was far from being finished. In consequence, however, of a long intimacy which had subsisted between that excellent man and highly-talented minister, M. de Martignac, and myself, my access to the Government offices was as free as before. I first became acquainted with the Viscount de Martignac at Berlin in the year 1797, when he was secretary to the Abbé Sieyes, the French ambassador, and I an

humble student at a Prussian university. Nor was the work finished when the next great change took place in the French ministry; but having had the honour of being well known to Prince Polignac for 30 years, and having also been well acquainted with his colleagues Count de la Bourdonnaye, and the Barons de Capelle, Montbel, and d'Haussez, the needful sources of information were still kept open to me. The statements I bring forward may therefore be considered as derived from official sources. I trust that I have nevertheless treated the various subjects with the strictest impartiality.

From the restoration till 1830 I found France flourishing and prosperous, her revenues, commerce, and industry in a progressive state of increase. The country, blessed with an excellent climate, a fruitful soil, and comparatively free from taxes, was universally admitted to be one of the happiest in Europe. But how does the case stand now? The reader will see that there has been every year since the revolution of 1830 a deficit in the revenue; commerce has decreased, and confidence in the commercial world is paralysed. This year there will probably be a further falling off in the revenue. The cholera has extended its ravages over half the kingdom, and four departments have been suffering under the horrors of civil war. Nay, it will be a question whether the inhabitants of these departments can be compelled to pay taxes, after the illegal measures of Government exercised towards them. At least in refusing to pay them, they will be supported by the doctrines of the

liberals during the Polignac administration, which were, that should ministers violate the Charter, no one ought to pay taxes. The measures adopted by Government in June 1832 have been judicially declared to be a violation of the Charter.

It certainly was not my original intention to write a long Preface; but the shock which France has received by the fall of the Bourbons make a few remarks necessary on the causes which produced it.

It is well known that under the benignant sway of Napoleon the legislative body was muzzled. When he first assumed the reins of power, the most important branch of the legislature was the *Tribunat*. Its members were allowed the liberty of speech, and many of them spoke out and spoke well, such as BENJAMIN CONSTANT, the celebrated CARNOT, SAINT-AUBIN, SAY, GALLOIS, MAILLÉ GARAT, etc., etc. But having encountered in this body a strong opposition to his measures, Napoleon, soon after he became Emperor, suppressed it altogether. As to the press, that was completely shackled. No sooner, however, did the members of the legislative body obtain liberty of speech and the press its freedom, at the restoration, than their frozen notes gave tongue, like the trumpet of Munchausen. As to the editors of the newspapers, they adopted a regular system of abuse against that very government by which they had just been liberated from the most humiliating thraldom, and all this under the banners of liberalism, whose principles they embraced, or affected to embrace. And here I cannot avoid noticing the impolicy of the Bourbon

government at the first restoration, in not having attached to their government the constitutionalists of 1789, such as Lafayette, the Lameths, the Girardins, Voyer d'Argenson, and many others. Instead of such men, the cunning partizans of the Emperor volunteered under the banners of the sincere friends of liberty, and by this monstrous and unnatural alliance, the Bonapartists became professedly the friends of freedom.

One of the first attacks of the Napoleonic-liberals was on the Charter itself, in consequence of its having been termed a granted Charter, *une Charte octroyée*. Granted it certainly was by Louis XVIII, and freely too. But were the Bonapartists in a condition to make terms with Louis XVIII? or were they prepared to dictate a larger measure of concession to his majesty or his allies? Had he been disposed to seat himself in the chair of Napoleon, and govern like him with a dumb legislature, who, let me ask, could have opposed him? And was the *Charte octroyée* less liberal than the consular and imperial decrees or the *senatus consulta* of Bonaparte?

The allied Sovereigns would have been more inclined to advise the king not to establish liberal institutions than to grant them, had Louis XVIII been so inclined. During the rule of Napoleon no objection was made to his system of government; and were it not for the visit to Paris of the Prussian hussars, the Austrian hulans, and the Russian calmucs, cossacs, and bashkirs, who proclaimed Napoleon a tyrant, the liberals of France would never

have obtained a free constitution. It was not the exertions of Frenchmen that obtained liberty for their country; what they did obtain was achieved by foreign bayonets.

Louis XVIII was once more compelled to quit his kingdom; and the French had their Emperor again; but they did not keep him long. On the second restoration, in consequence of the conduct of the partizans of Napoleon, the King might have abolished the Charter altogether; and who could have blamed him for it? Nothing of the kind, however, was done or thought of. But no sooner was the King again seated on his throne than a regular system of treason was organised. Lyons and Grenoble were in a state of open rebellion; the authors were brought to trial and executed. This however did not quench the spirit of treason. A few years afterwards, a rebellion was regularly organized at Saumur, at Colmar, at Strasburgh, and in many other places. A few of the leaders suffered the penalty of their crime, such as General Berton at Saumur, Colonel Caron at Strasburgh, a sub-lieutenant, Bories, and two others at Paris, for the conspiracy of la Rochelle. The Duc de Berry was assassinated by a fanatic who had been employed as a sadler in the stables of Bonaparte. Two men were sent to the galleys who let off fire works in the dead of night under the windows of the Duchess de Berry's bed chamber, to frighten her at the time she was pregnant of the Duc de Bordeaux. Secret societies were established in every town of France in the spirit of the *carbonari*, under the specious title of *aide-toi*,

le ciel t'aidera. As to the press, nothing could have been more violent; no matter who was minister, whether de Richelieu, Decazes, de Villèle, de Martignac or de Polignac. Nay, the minister who was most abused by the so-called liberal papers was M. Decazes, than whom a more enlightened and liberal man, in the best sense of these words, is not in existence. This I do not advance from hearsay, but from long personal acquaintance.

All parties admit that no minister in France since the restoration displayed so much talent in the finance department as M. Villèle; and for a time no minister was more popular: but ministerial popularity in France is never of long duration. Discontent gradually encreased, and at length the elections of 1827 threatened to leave him in a minority. He in consequence retired from office in January 1828. Soon after his retirement a pitiful effort was made in the Chamber of Deputies to stigmatize his ministry as "deplorable." But his very adversaries have since done him justice; no longer ago than the 16th of January 1832, M. Pagès, a deputy of the extreme gauche, pronounced in the Chamber those words I have given as a motto; the prosperity there spoken of undoubtedly commenced with M. de Villèle's administration.

The Martignac ministry which succeeded that of M. de Villèle, soon felt that they were not on a bed of roses! In the Chamber of Deputies the new Ministers had many difficulties to encounter; for after the new elections they had no less than three parties to contend

against: 1. the Deputies returned through the influence of the preceding administration; 2. the ultra-royalists, or the *extrême droite;* and 3. the so-called liberals, who formed a decided majority. Nevertheless, by good management, and through the influence of the great talents and the well known political integrity of Messrs. de Martignac, Roy, de la Ferronays, Portalis, and Hyde de Neuville, the Ministry was supported by large majorities in two successive sessions. But, at that period, I have repeatedly heard M. de Martignac say, that he could not get through a third, as the liberals were too much for him. This administration was termed by its enemies "the cabinet of concessions." But what could they do but concede? They were obliged, as M. de Martignac has often said to me, to knock at the door of all parties, or they could never have got through a single session; almost all the Deputies were strangers to him personally, and had he advised the King to dissolve the Chamber, the elections would have been worse than before.

The collision between the royalists and the liberals proceeded almost to open warfare. The King, was obliged therefore to change his Ministers. Had further concessions been made, he feared that his situation might become like that of his brother, the unfortunate Louis XVI.

The appointment of the Prince de Polignac to office was the signal for the fall of the Bourbons. The Chamber of Deputies began the work. A vast majority opposed the new Ministry, not waiting to see

what their march would be. The Chamber was dissolved; but the members composing the majority of 221 were returned almost without exception. Another dissolution was resolved on, which took place before the period which had been fixed for the meeting of the legislature.

On this occasion the machinery of the *Comité Directeur* was set actively in motion : their agents were dispatched all over the kingdom. Even "honourable Members" of the Chamber of Deputies, with some of whom I am well acquainted, did not disdain to undertake these missions themselves. A General of great celebrity told me not long since, that, as soon as the Polignac Ministry was formed, a subscription was opened for the purpose of bringing about a revolution, and that he himself put his name down for 50,000 fr.

The King was thus reduced to one of three alternatives:—to take a Ministry forced upon him by the opposition; to abdicate; or to have recourse to a *coup d'état*. Of these he chose the last. The fatal ordonnances of the 25th of July made their appearance, founded not on a republican *arrêté* or an imperial decree, but on an article of the Charter; vague, it is true, and indefinite, but by many supposed to warrant the temporary use of arbitrary power. Charles X, however, was driven from his throne in spite of an article in the Charter, which says "that the King can do no wrong, and that his Ministers alone are responsible." A new King was chosen by persons calling themselves Deputies; but whether his

election was legal or not, I leave the Viscounts de Châteaubriand and de Cormenin to settle; both these gentlemen having written very able pamphlets on the subject. Whether legal or otherwise, the election placed the present King in a very awkward position. His high office was undoubtedly forced upon him, very much against his will; for it cannot be supposed that he willingly lent himself to a change which supplanted his nearest relatives, with whom he had always lived on terms of loyalty and friendship. I have reason to know that when the post of Lieutenant-General was conferred on him, he accepted it, as he has repeatedly declared, in the firm conviction that he was to hold that post during the minority of his cousin and nephew, the Duke de Bordeaux, and no longer. Such were the views with which he accepted the office of Lieutenant-General. He was afterwards compelled by circumstances to act otherwise!

Charles X has been blamed, and even by persons supposed to be absolutists, for having issued the Ordonnances, and for having violated the Charter. The opposers of the Ordonnances say, that the clause in article xiv, which is founded on in their justification, was introduced jesuitically, and that its object was, when occasion should serve, to nullify the Charter altogether. I have already observed, that if Louis XVIII had been despotically inclined, he might have put down the Charter after the Hundred Days, when his subjects aided and abetted the usurper, for then, and then only, do I consider Bonaparte as an usurper.

But what objection was there ever made to the so much talked of 14th article? Not even when Louis XVIII, Talleyrand being then his Prime Minister, by a simple Ordonnance dated the 24th July 1815, sent 34 persons into exile, who had taken part in the rebellion of the Hundred Days. The saving clause in the fourteenth article had not therefore remained a dead letter, although it be true that, in the case alluded to, its operation was but temporary. The objects of this *coup d'état* of 1815 were sent to different places till the Chambers decided on their fate; but as the Chambers were not then sitting, and did not assemble for six months afterwards, they had all that time to remain in exile.

But why when the liberals enjoyed the majority in the Chambers during the Ministries of de Cazes and de Martignac, did they not insist on the abrogation of this obnoxious article? They thought it contrary to the spirit of the Charter, and after the Revolution of 1830, obtained its abrogation. As an Englishman, my own principles are decidedly averse to what the late Mr. Windham termed "a vigour beyond the law;" but I am writing on French affairs,—my object is to unmask the hypocrisy of the *pseudo* French liberals.

There is, it must be admitted, a difference of opinion as to the amount of the power reserved to the Monarch by this 14th article of the Charter. It cannot be denied, however, that the provocations were great. Nay, after the Revolution of 1830, will it be believed that the enemies of King Charles

were so unscrupulous as to boast that they had been acting a comedy for the last 15 years? Who can doubt the talents of French politicians for buffoonery? But instead of 15, they might have said that the performances had lasted for 40 years. During that period, they had acted tragedy under Robespierre, comedy with the Directory, and melo-drame, farce, and pantomime to Napoleon. At the head of the *dramatis personæ* during the whole period must be placed the ex-Bishop of Autun. Of the next performances the *programme* has not yet appeared.

And now let me ask the motive for this 15 years' comedy? Was it that the friends of liberty endured the humiliations they had experienced under Napoleon's Government? No such thing. What these Bonapartists wanted was not liberty, but place and power, which they had enjoyed free from royalist competitors under their Imperial master. The French political leaders themselves admit that changes in Government are but *une guerre de places*. It was an observation of Courtois, a Member of the Convention, who was appointed to make a report on the papers of Robespierre, after his death, "that it was "astonishing to see the number of adulatory letters "which had been addressed to that sanguinary mon-"ster. But if the very devil," adds the reporter, "had places and pensions to bestow, he too would "also find ready worshippers."

The most implacable hatred entertained towards the Bourbons originated in the partiality of that unfortunate family for England and Englishmen. It is very natural

that Frenchmen should hate us for having driven them out of the Peninsula, for having beaten them at Toulouse, and having completed the conquest at Waterloo. What was still more galling to them was our making a captive of their idol. This was, no doubt, a natural feeling. Nay, it is generally admitted that the predisposing causes to the Revolution of 1830 could be traced much farther back than the "ordonnances" which directly produced it. The *Constitutionnel* of the 11th September 1830 says fairly enough:—"On "commettrait une grave erreur si l'on imaginait que "les ordonnances du 25 juillet ont seules amené "l'insurrection: elles n'ont été qu'une cause *détermi-* "*nante*: elles ont eu pour résultat de faire éclater les "sentimens qui depuis quinze ans *couvaient* dans tous "les cœurs."

Knowing therefore, as I did, that the revolutionists of 1830 were the bitterest enemies of England, how galling was it to see Englishmen make pilgrimages to Paris, with addresses of congratulation from political societies on the establishment of the new order of things, applauding the *downfall of tyranny, and the triumph of freedom!* Freedom indeed! I have no great opinion of that liberty of which Bonaparte's Generals were the acknowledged apostles, and the civil servants of a military despotism were the warmest advocates. But anomalies and contradictions are now the order of the day. What can be said of the Political Unionists of Birmingham voting a silver medal to the son of Marshal Ney, and of their electing him an honorary member of their club? What, in the name of

Heaven, can there be in the political character of the Prince de la Moskowa to bring him in contact with an English democratical society?

Soon after the Revolution of 1830, the enemies of the fallen dynasty made some very curious disclosures. The first was the publication of the statutes of the Society "*Aide-toi*" and the "*Comité Directeur*," which were published in a newspaper called "*l'Ami des Peuples*," on the 12th of September 1830, as appears by the following abstracts:—

"When it had pleased Providence to cause the fall of the "great captain, who acted such a brilliant part in this world, "we saw the mass of the Bonapartists courting the alliance "of the liberals, the democrats, and the republicans; by "this union the opposition to the Government of the Bour- "bons became formidable. It was then that a secret society "was established, which took its birth in Italy, which had its "ramifications all over Europe, and which made monarchs "tremble on their thrones! We mean the *Carbonari*.

"The object of this society was the dethronement of the "Bourbons. Each member was obliged to provide himself "with a musket and thirty cartridges. The annual subscrip- "tions in money amounted to about two millions of francs, "which sum was placed at the disposal of the *Comité Direc- "teur* at Paris. The committee was composed of 19 members, "seven of whom were Members of the Chamber of Deputies, "and three distinguished advocates."

I shall now allude to another important revelation. It is a pamphlet written by Colonel Gauchais, who was implicated in the conspiracy of General Berton, and who made his escape from France. The Colonel gives an account of his having been at the

head of a plot, which was organized at Saumur, Béfort, La Rochelle, Strasburgh, and several other places. The plot was, however, detected; some of the chiefs were executed, and others made their escape. The latter, to keep their hands in use, went to Spain to assist the revolutionists of that country. Several were made prisoners by the army under the command of the Duke d'Angoulême, and were taken to France, where they were tried and acquitted! So much for the *sanguinary* spirit of the Bourbon Government!

In 1827, the Duke of Rovigo told me a curious story connected with General Berton's conspiracy. A distinguished leader of the Republican party, whose name I cannot publish, not having the Duke's permission, advanced 12,000 francs to the unfortunate Berton when he proceeded to Saumur in 1822, to place himself at the head of the rebellion. Five years afterwards this patriotic personage applied to one of the sons of the General for payment of the advances made to his father. M. de Rovigo advised the young man to refuse payment, but to offer to abide the decision of a court of law; he wrote to the patriot to that effect, and there the matter rested.

The *Tribune* of the 22d of April 1832 contains also a long account of the plots which had been hatched against the Bourbons by these liberal *comédiens*, of which the following is an abstract:—

"On the return of that family, branded by its antecedent "crimes, the patriots had determined never to enter into co-"venant with them, but, on the contrary, to rid the sacred

" soil of their odious presence. After a struggle of fifteen " years, success crowned the glorious enterprise. The op- " position to the Bourbons, which was composed of patriots, " liberals, and *doctrinaires*, was not unanimous. The patriots " were represented in the Chamber of Deputies by General " Lafayette, Dupont de l'Eure, a judge, who was ap- " pointed Minister of Justice at the revolution of 1830, " Manuel, Corcelles, Kœchlin, d'Argenson, General Tarayre, " Beauséjour, Audry de Puyraveau, de Saint-Aignan, etc. " These courageous deputies were the authors or accom- " plices of almost all the plots concocted against the Bour- " bons from their return to France till their final banishment. " Among those who were not members of the Chamber, but " who nevertheless acted in concert with them, were several " distinguished public writers, viz. Cauchois-Lemaire of the " *Constitutionnel,* and Chatelain of the *Courrier Français,* " advocates; many military men, among whom were Generals " Bertin, Bachelu, Sémélé, Dermoncourt, and Pajol; Colonels " Caron, Fabvier, Brice, Pailhes, Sausset, Planzeau, and Bail- " lon; Schonen and Madier de Montjau, judges! Mérilhou, " Bérenger, Barthe, Odilon-Barrot, Isambert, and Cabet, bar- " risters, and Béranger, the celebrated *chansonnier.* To further " the plans of the patriots, secret societies were established in " every part of France. D'Argenson, Kœchlin, Caron, Bertin, " Sausset, Gauchais, and others, were at the head of the con- " spiracies at Saumur, Béfort, Cambrai, and several other " places. They all wanted General de Lafayette to head the " conspiracy, but for a long time he hesitated about taking an " active part. At last he made up his mind to direct in person " the conspiracy at Béfort, and he left Paris on the 25th of " December 1821, for that purpose; but, when near that " town, he was informed that the plot was discovered, and " the chiefs in prison; he therefore returned to Paris.

" There was a party in the Chamber of Deputies who were " not accomplices in these plots, but were perfectly aware of " all that was going on. This party consisted of General Foy,

"Laffitte, Benjamin Constant, Stanislas Girardin, General Gé-
"rard, and M. Bignon.

"The *doctrinaires* were Royer Collard, Dupin, General Sé-
"bastiani, Guizot, Baron Louis, Villemain, General Mathieu
"Dumas, and Casimir Périer, who were not privy to the con-
"spiracies, but indirectly assisted the conspirators by their
"constant attacks on the Government."

I believe I have produced facts sufficient to prove that the throne of Charles X had for some time been tottering—his ordonnances crushed it. But the glorious revolution of 1830 did not produce all the happiness that was expected from it. Those of the actors who obtained lucrative situations under the new management allowed the performances to go on quietly; but such as could not obtain engagements began to grumble—down to the scene-shifters and candle-snuffers. And as to the audience—the sovereign—"the setters up and pullers down of kings," they, God help them, soon discovered the truth of Montaigne's observation: "*Le peuple est une bête que chacun monte à son tour.*" In others parts of the world, a revolution is considered a catastrophe, but in France it is regarded as a luxury. It is therefore a little unreasonable for Frenchmen to grumble when they find the taxes increase, and that the new Government is not a cheap one. Every class of people, especially in Paris, has felt more or less, that the change of the elder for the younger branch has not produced the benefit expected from it: no wonder then that the ministries since the Revolution of 1830 have not pleased the people, seeing that not the ministers alone,

but the monarchy they serve, owe their existence to an explosion of the popular will.

The first administration, including the names of the Duke de Broglie, Count Molé, and M. Guizot, refused either to lead or to follow the party of the "*mouvement;*" and in consequence, although men of undoubted talents, soon lost their popularity. It was only however a domestic "*mouvement*" to which they were opposed, for they did not scruple to interfere in the affairs of Spain, Belgium, and Germany. This *doctrinaire* ministry was succeeded by that of Messrs. Laffitte, Barthe, Mérilhou, and Montalivet, who were not so sternly opposed to the *laissez aller* of the Revolution. The change, however, did not prevent the riots which occurred on the trial of the Ministers of Charles X, whose murder was loudly called for by the *ci-devant* supporters of the new Government. On that occasion, M. Montalivet behaved most gallantly in defending the prisoners against the mob.

The new Ministry in its turn became unpopular, and had only a four months' existence, when M. Casimir Périer became the head of the Cabinet. During his career, which was fourteen months, there were also many *émeutes;* but it must be admitted that appearances were preserved of order and good Government. The cholera and anxiety, however, put an end to M. Périer. He was detested by his *liberal* adversaries, because he admitted that the Revolution of 1830 was not based upon the principle of the "sovereignty of the people." And M. Royer Collard, in the oration he delivered at the

Minister's funeral declared what was true, that M. Périer "did not court the Revolution of 1830."

Soon after M. Périer's death, a new revolutionary era commenced by a *coup d'état* on the part of the Government. Four of the Western Departments, had been, with little intermission, since the Revolution of 1830, in a state of open hostility against the new Government. The liberals of the Chamber of Deputies, and their partisans in the newspapers, particularly the *Courrier Français* and the *Constitutionnel*, called vehemently on Ministers to put those departments in a state of siege, and so to place their inhabitants in effect beyond the pale of the law. This liberal demand was complied with; but the editors of the Paris journals did not suppose that ministers would dare to treat the Parisians with as much severity as they did the Vendeans. At the funeral of General Lamarque, on the 5th June 1832, "*Vive la République! vive Napoléon II!* and *vive la liberté!*" were shouted by thousands. Red flags, the symbol of anarchy during the reign of terror, were openly displayed by men on foot and on horseback. The people, the military, and the National Guards were killing each other as fast as they could. This carnage commenced on the evening of the 5th, and continued till 4 o'clock, the following afternoon, when tranquillity was generally restored. On the 6th, early in the morning, police agents and soldiers entered the printing-offices of the *Tribune*, a liberal, the *Courrier de l'Europe*, and *la Quotidienne*, two royalist newspapers, and, before the papers were even

printed, seized the types, broke the presses, and committed every kind of devastation, arresting the editors, compositors, pressmen, and, in short, every one they met with. M. Bérard, editor of the *Cancans*, was sent to prison, handcuffed, chained to a common thief. So much for the liberty of the press, and for the security of newspaper property under a Charter, which says—"All Frenchmen have the "right to publish and print their opinions; the "censorship is for ever abolished."

But a still greater outrage was reserved for the gentlemen of the French press. It has already been stated that order was restored on the 6th; to the great astonishment of every one, however, excepting those who are acquainted with the freaks of Bonapartean-liberty, a royal ordonnance appeared in the *Moniteur* of the 7th, declaring Paris in a state of siege! On the 8th, a circular was published by Marshal Soult, the Minister at War, to the Generals of all the districts which had been declared in a state of siege, informing them that the military were to take cognizance of such political cases, as had till then belonged to the domain of the civil courts; and with respect to the offences of the press, he thus expresses himself:—"Common and ordinary cases of libel (*simples délits*) are to be sent to the usual tribunals, but the writers of publications which tend to excite revolt, or to disturb public tranquillity, are to be tried by a council of war." And, pray, who is to decide here the question of *tendency*?—whether a libel be an ordinary delinquency to be tried by a civil court, or a

serious political offence to be tried by a court martial? Surely a military man is not the most competent to make such nice technical distinctions, although he may chance to be an able professor of the *canon* law!

But in all this extraordinary proceeding, the unconstitutional acts of some of the judges are perhaps the most to be deplored. The very day on which the royal ordonnance appeared declaring Paris in a state of siege, a special sitting of the *Cour Royale* was held for the purpose of deciding on a hypothetical case submitted to them by M. Persil, the *Procureur-général*. The question proposed was, whether the civil courts were competent to take cognizance of the political transactions (*faits politiques*) which had occurred in Paris during the 5th and 6th of June. The court decided in the negative, declaring that the royal ordonnance was to have a retroactive effect, and that the proceedings which led to the state of siege were to fall within the domain of the councils of war.

Now, what are we to think of this liberal M. Persil? The learned gentleman was one of the managers of the trial of the ex-ministers of Charles X, in the course of which he was particularly severe on the conduct of the prisoners for having declared Paris in a state of siege. "Thus," said he, "was the first city in France, the capital of the first of empires, put out of the pale of the law; a million of people were to seek protection from military authority; the Judges were deprived of their influence and authority; the lives, the fortunes, and the honour of citizens were transferred to councils of war."

Should the present ministers ever happen to be placed in a similar situation to those of Charles X, who knows but that this M. Persil might conduct the prosecution, and make them the same reproaches!

"*Mutato nomine de te.*"

Many individuals felt indignant at this *coup-d'état*, but in general the people of Paris, having witnessed so many similar events since 1789, were tolerably indifferent about it. With the exception of those of Charles X, they were all, be it observed, performed by liberals for the furtherance of their views, as, for instance, that of the 31st of May 1793, when some of the best blood of France was spilt—the Girondins.—Then the 13th of *Vendémiaire*, when Bonaparte commanded for the Convention against the armed sections of Paris.—Then the 18th *Fructidor*, when the Directory, without even the form of trial, sent two of its own body, a great many members of the Legislature, newspaper Editors, printers, etc., to Cayenne.—Then again the 18th *Brumaire*, achieved by Napoleon. Thus *Coups-d'état* are no novelty in France, nor does it appear that the liberals would have objected to the last, had it been directed solely against the adherents of the Bourbons.

To prove the indifference of the Parisians to all such matters, three days after the great event of the 7th of June, the military and the National Guards were reviewed by the King; he was every where received with acclamations; the ladies, from

their balconies, cheered him as he passed, and the people—the sovereign people "clapped their c apped "hands, and waved their greasy night-caps."

Thus all went off quietly: no resistance was offered to the ordonnances. Soult knew the folks he had to deal with; and they, in their turn, knew him, as one of the school of Napoleon, and not a man to be trifled with. I too have known them for upwards of thirty years, "*et intus et in cute novi.*" All I am surprised at is that Merlin's well known "*loi des suspects*" was not revived, or that by a royal ordonnance a number of state prisons were not erected, as was done by Napoleon in 1810. The patriotic deputies, when they established a provisional Government in July, were supposed to have acted conscientiously. They were determined to drive away a king who had violated the compact between the crown and the people, as we did in England with our James II. The ordonnance of the 7th of June was but an *alter idem* of those of Charles X., but the patriotic deputies on the latter occasion acted more coolly; indeed the weather was not so hot in June 1832 as it was in July 1830. Those who had obtained places under the new Government thought the late ordonnance constitutional,—the ministers of Charles X. thought their's even legal. The disinterested patriots who are yet unprovided for made no stir: one had a *migraine*, went to bed, and took camomile; another had an indigestion, kept his room, and took tisane; a third having over-exerted himself at the close of the session, his lungs became affected—it was there-

fore natural enough that he should go into the country to take ass's milk! Such at least in sober seriousness were the reasons assigned for this unwonted instance of discretion. Three liberals of the first water, against whom warrants were issued, Messrs. Cabet, Laboissière and Garnier Pagès, all members of the Chamber of Deputies and *ordonnateurs* of the funeral of general Lamarque, kept out of the way till the siege was taken off, when they surrendered to the civil magistrates:

"The better part of valour is discretion."

An attempt was made, under pretence of an old law of 1674, to make spies of the surgeons, by ordering them to give notice to the police of the patients they attended for recent wounds. To their honour be it said, the surgeons resisted this mandate, and the legal authorities did not venture to enforce it.

Even the proprietors of the puppet-shows were ordered to send a *programme* of their exhibitions to the police. This collision between a *coup-d'état*, and a *coup de théâtre* is also sanctioned by some antiquarian dogma. I cannot blame the police for having an eye upon Punch, as the *comédiens* proved such dangerous enemies of the Government of Charles X. I did not hear that the police applied to the clergy to enforce the 6th article of the *Concordat*, signed in 1802 between the Pope and Bonapacte, which provides that "if, in his diocese or parish, or elsewhere, a priest should discover any thing going forward to the prejudice of the state, he must

"immediately communicate all such information to "the Government!" In those days a person who held a high situation in the police, and who had formerly been a priest at Grenoble, dressed himself up in canonicals, and visited the state prisoners to receive their confessions. This is rather more than would now be permitted. The police respects the confessional, although they make no bones of sending spies into the chambers of the sick.

At the two courts-martial convoked at Paris, ten persons were tried, and one of them was a female. Who ever heard before of a woman being tried by a court-martial? Three were condemned to death, and others to transportation and imprisonment. Almost all those brought to trial were the "heroes of July!" —Well might they exclaim when they recognized the red-bordered blue ribbon at the button hole of their prosecutor, "*Et tu, Brute!*" That was indeed the unkindest cut of all. Were "the knights" to blame that they did not succeed on the second occasion? It was they who began the riots of July, which, because they succeeded and ended in a revolution, were called "the three glorious days." The late disturbances were but an echo of the others; the riots of July called "the three glorious days" succeeded, and ended in a revolution. The riots in June, in consequence of their failure, are called "the two inglorious days," and the rioters instead of being decorated with ribbons, are sent to the galleys.

"But treason ne'er succeeds: Pray, what's the reason?
"If it succeeds, why, none dare call it treason."

As all tribunals both civil and military are subject to the Court of Cassation, of course the first person condemned to death by the court-martial availed himself of the right of appeal. The Court of Cassation did their duty, declaring the incompetency of courts-martial to try persons not of the military profession; and on the following day, the siege of Paris was raised!

It is generally admitted that ministers violated the Charter; but they say, and that too most pertinaciously, that they have not done so; consequently, if nullifying those articles of the Charter which I have enumerated are not unconstitutional, then let me ask, on what principle of justice or equity can M. de Polignac and his colleagues be still kept in confinement? The ministers of Charles X were condemned for having violated the Charter, and those of Louis-Philippe, who have done the same, are to come off triumphantly! The fact is, the Government of 1830 had no right to try the ex-ministers of Charles X; they were accused of violating two articles in the Charter, viz. the laws of the election and of the press—whereas their accusers drove away the King, and accomplished a revolution. Our wholesome English law maxim is, "that every prosecutor must come into Court with "clean hands." Nay, at the moment I am now writing (3rd of July), a circular from M. Barthe, minister of justice, addressed to the law-officers of the crown, has been published in the Paris papers, complaining "of the licentiousness of the press, and calling upon them to be vigilant, and commence pro-

secutions against those who attack the Charter." This was one of the principal grievances complained of in the report of the ministers to Charles X, which preceded the fatal ordonnances.

I cannot blame a Government for defending itself when attacked. The French are proverbially difficult to manage. If the late ordonnance had been promulgated during the riots while the streets were blocked up by barricades, and the city in the hands of the mob, the ministers might have justified themselves on the plea of necessity. If we except the periods when Louis XI, cardinal Richelieu, and Napoleon ruled France, the country has constantly been exposed to convulsion. And for the welfare of a country in which I have long resided, sometimes not unhappily, I fear that no government will ever be able to maintain itself long. A late noble foreign secretary, who was formerly employed in a high diplomatic capacity on the continent, may recollect what Fouché said to him at Paris in 1814, as to the instability of all governments in France, and the probability that in less than twenty years the country would split itself into twenty Republics.

The fact is, the only idea Frenchmen have of liberty is, to upset the existing Government—no matter what follows; they have always said, and still say, that they know very well what they don't like, though not quite agreed about what they do. As soon as a Government is changed, they instantly cry for war. Immediately after the revolution of 1830, and before the Government was tolerably settled, they said: "We must destroy the treaties of 1815."

To-day they want the limit of the Rhine; to-morrow the Vistula.—If the new Government hesitates to comply with their ravings, then plots, conspiracies, and *émeutes* are the order of the day! To such a state of things is France reduced. Liberty they care not a jot about, or rather they have no practical idea of its meaning; always mixing up the grossest despotism with the sacred name of liberty. Take, as an instance, the coinage of a certain period of modern French history, exhibiting on one side a well known effigy with the legend "*Napoléon Empereur*," and on the other, a wreath of laurel, with the somewhat incongruous inscription "*République Française!*" If any body doubt the fact, let him apply to my publisher, Mr. Hatchard.

The cause of the turbulence of the present French generation is, that every man, nay every half-educated youngster, thinks himself as qualified as a Jeremy Bentham to become a manufacturer of constitutions. Of course this description of persons, no matter of what country, are always desirous of change. The great Frederic judged well of their character when he said, that if he were disposed to punish any of his provinces, he would send a reformer to govern them. And what have these late changes in France led to? I think the question is fairly answered by the following epitaph on a tomb stone of one of the "heroes of July,"

« PASSANT! VA DIRE A L'EUROPE
» QUE NOUS SOMMES MORTS
» POUR ENRICHIR UNE CENTAINE DE PIEDS-PLATS. »

As to the foreign relations of the present Government of France, I shall content myself with the single observation, that all those new-fangled doctrines about non-intervention must henceforth be abandoned, as any pretension to them would come with the worst possible grace from a Government which affects to dictate to others how they are to act towards their own subjects, after such proceedings as have just been alluded to. Henceforth the people of other countries must look elsewhere than to France for support from the spirit of propagandism.

If the Editor of the *Constitutionnel* should look over the file of his journal, he will find in that paper of the 24th March 1831, that he has not been gifted with second-sight, as will be seen by the following article :

" The days of July imprinted all over Europe an " admiration for France; the *mouvement* was uni- " versal; we were proclaimed LE PEUPLE MODÈLE. " Our name is a pledge for the hope of every people " who feel indignant at despotism, and who abhor the " treaties of 1815. They have their hopes in us— " in us they put their faith—and they are waiting ! " *Fudge!* They will wait long enough !

The same *petite protection* is held out in the *Journal des Débats* of the 7th March 1832, where we are very good naturedly assured of Gallic paternity, and told that English Reform is the eldest daughter of French Revolution. Let us beware, lest by claiming such kindred, we do not place ourselves in the situation of the children of Saturn ! The

Constitutionnel of the 8th July 1832 goes even further than his ministerial contemporary; he calls upon the Germans to follow in the wake of the heroes of July, and tell them that in that case they may reckon on the assistance and protection of France! "Aye, such "protection as vultures give to lambs—covering and "devouring them!"

No! no! "*Peuple modèle*," you would hunt the Poles about, like wild beasts, send them to Africa for protection!—and then call on the Germans to revolt! I tell you, they will do no such thing. The shades of Palm, of Hofer, and other German victims of military despotism, forbid so monstrous an alliance. Where is Arndt? where Oken? where Jahn? where Schlegel? and the other chiefs of the *Tugend Bund?* You, Germans, have not forgotten my exertions in 1813 to put down the despotism of Bonaparte in Germany, and now I tell you that the chief leaders of the revolutionists of July are deeply imbued with his arbitrary doctrines, and have been bred in his school.

A great deal has been said about the policy and expediency of forming a close connexion betwixt the Governments of England and France. If the latter could be consolidated, there would be no objection to such an alliance, but that is more than doubtful. At all events, if Louis-Philippe wishes to give a pledge of his good-will towards England, he should once for all rid himself of the Buonapartean *clique* by whom he is perpetually surrounded. His sincerity must ever be exposed to doubt and suspicion as long as his asso-

ciates are chosen from among the bitterest enemies of England.

It will not be inferred, I hope, from what I have now written, that I am averse to reform, or even to revolution, where and when necessary. It does not follow that, because I wrote in favour of the revolution of Poland, when struggling for freedom under the banners of Kosciusko, or because I admired the first principles of the French revolution of 1789, I must approve of all the horrors and incongruities that followed. In my various publications, "The "Crimes of Cabinets,"—"The Secret History of the "Cabinet of Bonaparte,"—"Conduct of France "towards America,"—"Observations on Mr. Can- "ning's appointment to the Ministry in 1822," and in my weekly journal the *Anti-gallican Monitor*, which I edited for fourteen years, I challenge any one to produce a line in favour of despotism.

In September 1814, I published in that journal a letter addressed to Lord Castlereagh previous to his Lordship's going to the Congress which was to be held at Vienna, in which I strongly urged the necessity of re-establishing the kingdom of Poland, and that the sovereign should not be a Russian but the Polish Prince Adam Czartorinsky, the very nobleman who since became the chief of the late Government of that unfortunate country. My letter was reprinted in the pamphlet I wrote on Mr. Canning's coming into the Cabinet in 1822, and in that publication I pointed out the discontents and insurrections that would infallibly ensue in Belgium, Italy, Poland and Ger-

many, arising out of the ill-digested acts of the congress of Vienna.

If I wrote in harsh terms against Napoleon, it was not against the man, but against his military despotism. I received favours and kindness from him personally, but that was no reason I should approve of all his arbitrary acts (1).

I intended to add to the present volume the state of literature in France, the drama, etc.; but these matters I must leave for the next. In this, however, I have given as a *Postscript* the rights of dra-

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(1) I must here say a word respecting a spurious translation of my Secret History of the Cabinet of Bonaparte, which first appeared in Paris after the restoration in 1814. In that translation abuse was heaped on persons whom I spoke well of in the original, and was represented as having abused the French nation *en masse*. The following extract from the original, published in London in 1810, page 418 of the 6th edition, is the best reply I can make to such a monstrous and illiberal charge:—"I have lived long enough in France "to have become acquainted with the character of the people of that "country. I have been in habits of intimacy with persons of every "way of thinking, and of every creed; and, upon the whole, I must "say, that I have not found Frenchmen less susceptible of friendship "than other nations. I have known many respectable characters in "that country, both male and female. If the French people were "as bad as vulgar opinion represents them, they would, in consequence of the wickedness of their various Governments since the "revolution, be vicious indeed. It is true, that the French people "are *léger*, but they have a great deal of sensibility and kindness "in their composition. A distinction should be made between "*Napoleon the Corsican* and the people of France."

Still further to free myself from these imputations, I caused letters to be inserted in all the Paris papers in 1814 and in 1819, complaining of the unhandsome manner in which my work had been garbled.

matic authorship in France, in consequence of a recent discussion on the subject in the House of Commons.

Since I commenced this work, there have been three changes of ministers under one dynasty—then a revolution—and three changes of ministers under another; and as every ministry makes some alterations in the machinery of Government, there is no saying what changes may take place before the additional matter can be prepared for the press. Let me therefore hasten the present volume out of hand, lest I find myself in the situation of the Barber in MARTIAL,

"——*Tonsor dum circuit ora Luperci,*
"*Expungitque genas, altera barba subit.*"

LEWIS GOLDSMITH.

August, 1832.

STATISTICS OF FRANCE.

The colossal empire of France, founded in a great degree by Napoleon Bonaparte, met the same fate with those kingdoms which were conquered by Alexander and Charlemagne—An awful lesson to military conquerors!

On the restoration of the Bourbon Family to the throne in 1814, by virtue of a solemn treaty entered into between Louis XVIII and the allied powers of England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, France was restricted to her ancient limits.

That kingdom is at present divided into 21 military divisions, each commanded by a general officer, and consists of 86 departments, the names of which will be hereafter specified, with their *chefs-lieux* or capital towns. These departments are subdivided into 362 *arrondissements* or districts, 2,842 *cantons*, and 39,381 *communes*.

The magistrature of each department is vested in a prefect, that of the *arrondissements* is under the authority of a *sous-préfet*, and the cantons under that of a *juge*

de paix; the affairs of the *communes* are subjected to the administration of a mayor and his adjoints.

The particular attributes of these functionaries, who are all appointed by the King, will be explained hereafter.

The Government of France is a Constitutional Monarchy; and consists of the KING, as supreme; a Chamber of Peers, whose titles are in most cases hereditary; and a Chamber of Deputies, chosen in the different departments; each providing a definite number fixed by law. It is true that the population of the empire under Napoleon's government exceeded 50 millions of souls; it is no less a fact that under the *ancien régime* France never contained more than 24 millions of inhabitants; whereas it appears by the census of 1826, that her population then exceeded 32 millions. It is therefore a rational induction that so astonishing an increase as nine millions, in a term of 34 years, is to be attributed to the ameliorated condition of all her middle and labouring classes during that period, particularly when we take into consideration the immense loss of lives resulting from 25 years of civil and foreign wars.

On taking possession of the throne of his ancestors in 1814, Louis XVIII granted his subjects the celebrated Charter, which fixes the basis of the Constitutional and Representative Government of France.

By this invaluable grant, it was enacted that all Frenchmen, either by birth or by naturalisation, should be considered equal in the eye of the law: That the Roman Catholic and Apostolic faith should be the established religion of the State; but that all other communions should be tolerated and protected: That all persons, whatever their religious faith, should be admissible to all civil and military offices: That the person of the King should be held sacred and inviolable; but that his Ministers should be responsible for all acts of their administration.

The King is the supreme head of the executive power, and can grant pardons and commute punishments by his own authority. He can declare war and make peace. He

commands the land and naval forces; forms treaties of alliance and commerce; nominates his Ministers, Ambassadors, and all other public functionaries; assembles, prorogues, and dissolves the Chamber of Deputies: in the latter case, a new Chamber must be formed within three months after its dissolution. He has the power to issue Ordonnances (similar to the Orders in Council in England), and regulations for the benefit and security of the State. The King always presides at his Cabinet Council or *Conseil des Ministres*, which is held twice every week. He is the head of the Council of State; but when he does not preside (and he seldom does), the Minister of Justice fills the chair.

The King has power to create an unlimited number of Peers, either for life only, or he can render their peerages hereditary; but these are without any exemption from taxes, or other contributions required by the State.

The legislative power is exercised by the King, conjointly with the Chamber of Peers and the Chamber of Deputies. All laws emanate from the King, by whose order the Minister lays his proposition, called *projet de loi*, before the two Chambers for their assent, excepting when a new tax or impost is to be proposed, in which case it is laid in the first instance before the Chamber of Deputies.

Every new law must be publicly discussed and voted by the majority of each of the Chambers, but the sanction of the King is absolutely necessary before any law can be promulgated as an act of the Legislature.

The revenue of the King was fixed at the Restoration, by the budget of 1814, at 15,510,000 francs per annum, and a further grant was made for the other branches of the Royal Family of four millions a-year. But by the budget of 1816 the income of the King was augmented to 30 millions: the grant for the other branches of the Royal Family remained unaltered.

At the demise of Louis XVIII, however, a considerable alteration took place in the royal revenues; the income of

Charles X was fixed at 25 millions per annum, and that of the other branches of the Royal Family was increased to seven millions a-year; making, upon the whole, a clear reduction of two millions per annum. The King has also certain domains and forests, which produce a considerable revenue, the nett amount of which is supposed to be about eight millions.

Although, at the first view, the income of the King may appear large, yet it will perhaps not be deemed so, when we take into consideration the great number of persons and the various establishments he supports, viz.:—A grant of eight millions a-year in pensions—an act of pure royal munificence, and principally bestowed on the victims of the Revolution; the extra pay to four companies of *gardes du corps* (consisting of 150 men each), all receiving officers' pay, as they have all various rank in the line, for which they are paid by the War Department. The Household, as it is designated, includes the following appointments:—

	fr.
Lord Steward (*Grand-Maître*): this office was held by the late Duc de Bourbon . . .	140,000
1 Maître d'Hôtel	40,000
4 Chamberlains of the Household	40,000
9 Stewards	72,000
4 Under Stewards	20,000
4 Cooks	12,000
Chief Purveyor of Fish	3,000
10 Assistants	20,000
Wine	172,000
Kitchen consumption	585,000
Charcoal	65,000
Etc., etc., making a sum total of . . .	1,697,700

The following are in the department of the King's Chamberlain :—

	fr.
Grand Chamberlain	100,000
4 First Gentlemen of the Bed-chamber . .	160,000
32 Gentlemen of the Bed-chamber	192,000
5 Valets de Chambre	60,000
16 ordinary ditto	72,000
2 Barbers	5,000
1 Director of the Fêtes and Theatres . . .	6,000
1 Ballet-master of the Court	6,000
Expenses attending theatrical representations at Court	12,000
Presents given by order of the King . . .	30,000
Besides minor expenses, making a sum total of	988,000

ROYAL PALACES.

VERSAILLES AND TRIANON.

	fr.	fr.
The Governor	20,000	
With divers expenses, etc., etc.		43,600

FONTAINEBLEAU.

The Governor	15,000	
With divers other expenses		66,100

LOUVRE.

Governor, 15,000 fr.: with other expenses . . 43,650

RAMBOUILLET.

Governor, 15,000 fr.: with other expenses . . 45,400

COMPIÈGNE.

Governor, 15,000 fr.: with other expenses . . 57,200

ST.-GERMAIN.

Governor, 10,000 fr.: with other expenses . 18,900

STRASBOURG.

Governor, 10,000 fr.: total 24,400

PAU.

Governor, 10,000 fr.: total 22,500

BORDEAUX.

Intendant, 8,000 fr.: total 18,000

ST.-CLOUD.

Governor, 15,000 fr.: total 76,000

ÉLYSÉE-BOURBON.

Adjutant, 1,800 fr.: total 29,000

TUILERIES.

Governor, 20,000 fr.: total 267,660

MEUDON.

Governor, 15,000 fr.: total 29,000
Salaries, wood, etc. 809,000

MUSIC.

2 Superintendants, 6,000 fr. each; 7 violin players, 2,400 fr. each; etc., etc.: total . 240,400

WARDROBE.

Grand Master, 40,000 fr.; Chamberlain, 100,000 fr.; purchases of wearing-apparel, etc.; making a total of 182,575

MEDICAL ESTABLISHMENT.

First Physician, 20,000 fr.; second Physician, 12,000 fr.; with physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, etc., etc.: making a total of 176,000

STABLES.

Expenses for Master of the Horse, horses, stabling, etc., etc. 2,066,217

PRIVATE CHAPEL.

Grand Almoner, 100,000 fr.; with confessors, clerks, and divers expenses: making a sum total of : 693,900

One hundred and fifty thousand francs were paid annually in pensions to superannuated artists; also the heavy expenses attending the support of the magnificent porcelain manufactory at Sèvres; the manufactory of tapestry of the Gobelins at Paris and at Beauvais; all the expenses incumbent on the *Garde Meuble*, where the Crown Jewels and Royal Insignia are kept; the expense of coining medals; the Museum of Painting and Sculpture at Paris: the two latter establishments alone amount to nearly three million of francs a-year. His Majesty also allowed 80,000 francs a-year to the Italian Opera, and 45,000 francs to an institution for the encouragement of Sacred Music, lately established in Paris.

When we consider, in addition to all these disbursements, the magnificent manner in which the French Court was conducted, and the liberality with which the King was always ready to aid his distressed subjects, who, from various circumstances, were suddenly involved in misfortune, the revenue of his Majesty appears hardly commensurate with such unbounded munificence. Besides, all that the King received was not hoarded up; every sou he received was expended; and the strongest proof of this assertion is, that when Charles X was driven from his throne, the persons who seized the reins of government advanced him 600,000 francs to defray the expenses of his journey from Rambouillet to England!

Even before the Revolution, when the necessaries of life were only half the expense they are at the present day, and when the Monarch had no faithful followers in exile to reward for their fidelity, the allowance to the Royal Family far exceeded 30 million of francs a year.

The management of the King's Household was, until lately, under the control of a *Ministre de la Maison du*

Roi, who was also a Cabinet Minister; previous, however, to the Revolution of 1830, the title of the head of this department was changed to that of *Intendant Général*, without a seat in the Cabinet. This is the only Ministry whose accounts are not submitted to the Audit Office; consequently, the exact receipts and disbursements are not publicly known.

THE CHAMBER OF PEERS.

This essential branch of the Legislature is presided by the Chancellor of France, and in his absence by a Peer nominated by the King. This Chamber is convoked by his Majesty at the same time as the Chamber of Deputies, and the session of one commences and finishes with that of the other. No meeting of the Chamber of Peers can take place but by an express order from the King, nor can it sit when the Chamber of Deputies is not assembled: its sittings are secret.

A Peer of France may be admitted into the Chamber of Peers at the age of five-and-twenty, but can exercise no prerogative until he has completed his thirtieth year. Members of the Royal Family and Princes of the Blood are Peers by birth, but they have no vote till they have completed the age of five-and-twenty. Princes of the Blood cannot sit in this Chamber without an order from the King, communicated by a message to the Chamber at the commencement of each session, without which formality, all deliberations of the Chamber held in their presence are deemed null and void.

At the commencement of each session, every Peer receives a letter from the King to attend the Chamber, without which authority, he may be refused admittance by the Usher of the Chamber.

This Chamber takes cognizance of all crimes of high treason, and all attempts against the security and peace of the State, in which case it is convened as a High Court of Justice, by a special summons from the King, as in the

cases of Marshal Ney, and Louvel the assassin of the Duke of Berry.

No Peer can in any case be arrested but by the authority of the Chamber; by which alone he can be judged in criminal cases. Of the Ecclesiastical Peers, Cardinals have the title of Dukes; Archbishops and Bishops that of Counts. The titles of the Lay-Peers are Dukes, Marquises, Counts, Viscounts, and Barons, whose eldest sons take the title next in rank to their father, and the younger sons the next in rank to the eldest brother. The sons of Barons bear the title of Chevalier. The number of Peers in 1826 was only 214, but was increased in 1827 to 290.

By an ordonnance of Louis XVIII, in 1817, no person could become a Peer of France if he had not established a *majorat* (1) by the authority of the King, under letters-patent of the Great Seal; to establish which, a demand was first to be made to the *Garde des Sceaux*, Minister of Justice. Those Peers of the present Chamber who formed part of the late Imperial Senate are paid 24,000 francs annually, but many of these are not hereditary. Some of the Peers who were created by the King received pensions from 12 to 15,000 francs. Two millions appear in the annual budget to defray the house expenses of this Chamber; but, independent of that sum, the Peers' pensions are paid out of the fund called *Pensions Civiles*. Many Peers

(1) The majorats were first established in 1808 by Napoleon, who was desirous of forming a nobility of his own.

A majorat requires the possession of landed estates, or funded property so destined that a father cannot grant them to his eldest son to the detriment of his other children. He cannot disinherit a child from private pique, as in England.

A parent may confer a majorat on his eldest son (if he have only two children), not exceeding one half of his fortune, which quota must consist in unincumbered landed property or in money in the public funds.

If he have three children, a parent may settle one third of his property on his eldest son as a majorat, and one fourth if he have four children; and a like proportion according to the number of children he may have at the time he makes the settlement of a majorat on his

of the *ancien régime*, as well as some of those of modern creation, possess a larger revenue than the minimum required by law, and do not receive any gratuity from Government. On the 1st December, 1831, the amount of the pensions payable to the Peers was . . 2,328,500 fr.

From this sum was deducted :		
1st. The pensions of those Peers who had been created by Charles X, and those who lost their rank by their refusal to take the oath of allegiance to the present Government	471,500	689,500 fr.
2d. The pension of the Marquis de Dreux Brézé, which he has resigned	6,000	
3d. Another pension, the titular of which has refused to receive it provisionally	12,000	
4th. The extinctions to take place in 1832, estimated at . .	200,000	
		1,639,000
To this balance there falls to be added certain pensions to the widows of Peers . .		15,000
Total		1,654,000 fr.

eldest. The majorat does not, however, exclude the eldest son from sharing with the other children at the death of the father. If, however, the father should have more children after conferring a majorat, either by his first or even by a second marriage, the eldest son possessing a majorat is bound to make up any deficiency to complete the equal distribution of property to each child, in the event of the demise of the father. For instance, a person possessed of 100,000 francs, nett income, may confer during his lifetime, if he have only two children, 50,000 francs as a majorat on his eldest son ; but if he should, after this transfer, have two more children, the eldest must hold himself responsible to refund, if necessary, a sum equal to the amount required, to give an equal portion to each of the children at the demise of the father, to be paid on each of the younger children coming of

The Chancellor of France, though not a Peer, received however, as President of the Chamber of Peers, an annual salary of 100,000 francs. Since the Revolution of 1830 the Chancellorship has been abolished; a Speaker or President is now appointed by the Chamber, or rather by those Peers who were suffered to remain by the Chamber of Deputies; the latter having thought proper to *un-peer* all those created by Charles X.

THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.

This assembly, as we have already observed, is composed of persons chosen from among the 86 departments. In 1816, this Chamber consisted of only 258 members, who were elected for five years only. But by the then existing law, one fifth of that number was renewed every year; which was effected by forming five equal series of departments, each series containing one fifth of the whole number of Deputies. In 1817, the first of these series to be renewed was determined by casting lots, and the other four were annually renewed in numerical order, until the entire Chamber was changed in 1821. At this epoch a new law was passed with regard to the representation, and it was determined to add 172 new Deputies to the Chamber, who were chosen by the Departmental Electoral Colleges, according to a table presented to them, specifying the number to be nominated out of each department.

A Chamber of Deputies was thus formed consisting of

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age. If this is not done, the majorat is annulled, and the title becomes extinct.

The value of a majorat required to bear the title of Duke is 15,000 *l.* nett annual income; a Marquis or Count 10,000 fr. nett income; Viscounts and Barons 5,000 fr. nett, if not Peers of France; if so, double the amount. As the title of Chevalier is merely a personal title, and conferred as a reward for service (as a Chevalier of the Order of St.-Louis, or of the Legion of Honour), a majorat is not required, the title being considered worth 3,000 fr. a-year.

430 members, and which, by a law passed in the session of 1824, was rendered septennial (1).

The President or Speaker of this Chamber is annually nominated by the King, out of five members chosen by the whole assembly, whose names are presented to his Majesty for his approbation. The King always opens the session in the Chamber of Deputies by a speech from the throne, but it is prorogued by the Minister of the Interior, by command of his Majesty. When a new law is presented to the Chamber on the part of the King, by his Minister, it is in the first instance referred to the *bureaux* or special committees, which are formed at the commencement of every new session, and periodically renewed. These *bureaux* are nine in number; if the new law be approved of by three or more of them, it is reported to the Chamber, when the principle of the measure is publicly discussed, and afterwards the clauses are voted article by article. These two operations are analogous to the second reading and the committal of a bill in the Houses of the British Parliament.

The decision of the *bureaux* is reported to the whole Chamber by the Chairman or *Rapporteur;* but so far from being guided by the opinions of the *bureaux*, it very frequently decides in an opposite sense to that of the report. Neither the members of this Chamber nor those of the Upper House have the initiative; but a member may propose a law to his Majesty in the form of an address, praying the King to order the same to be presented to the Chamber for its adoption. But if the address be not approved of by the majority of the Chamber, the motion of course falls to the ground. To form a Chamber it is necessary that one half of all the members should be present.

(1) It is worth remarking, that in the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, whose population does not exceed 22 millions, the House of Commons is composed of 658 members, while France, with a population one third more numerous, is represented by a number of members one third less.

The special clauses of a law are voted openly by *assis et levée*, the *ayes* rising and the *noes* keeping their places, and *vice versâ*. The *ensemble* is voted by secret scrutiny, the ayes being indicated by white balls and the noes by black ones, thrown into an urn placed on the tribune of the Chamber (1).

The sittings of this Chamber are public; but, on the demand of five members, it may exclude all strangers, and form itself into a private committee (2). No Deputy can be arrested for debt during the session of the Chamber, nor within six weeks previous to its assembling, or six weeks subsequent to its prorogation; and if arrested at another period, he must be liberated during the session; nor can any Deputy be arrested or prosecuted for a criminal charge, except he be detected in the act (*en flagrant délit*), until after a permission be obtained from the Chamber.

It is a curious fact, that under Bonaparte's government the members of the Legislative Body, although *not allowed to speak*, received each a salary of 10,000 fr. per annum (*for silence*), amounting in the whole to an annual expense to the country of *three millions of francs*; whereas the members of this Chamber under the Bourbon government (who are *permitted* to speak, and it is even thought that many of them say too much) receive neither salary nor indemnity.

The President, the Secretaries, and the officers attached to the Chamber, such as questeurs, huissiers, etc. are the only persons paid. The President's salary is 100,000 francs per annum, besides a furnished hotel, firing, equipage, etc., etc. The entire expense of the Chamber, as appears by the last budget, does not exceed 800,000 fr. per annum.

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(1) This is certainly a singular mode, and differs materially from that adopted in England, where the name of each member and the nature of his vote is known—a mode by which the Ministers have a sure opportunity of distinguishing their friends from their opponents.

(2) A gallery is reserved for the reporters of the newspapers, and a place near the Speaker for those of the *Moniteur*, that being the official journal, in which the debates are correctly given *verbatim*.

It is not necessary that a Cabinet Minister should be a member of either of the Chambers. As Ministers, they have a right to speak in both, but they cannot vote, unless they are members. The Government can also appoint *Commissaires du Roi* to speak on a law proposed. The President of the Chamber of Deputies, who is also a member, can vote, but takes no part in the debates, excepting where he is required to give his opinion on the *règlement* of the Chamber. There are four Vice-Presidents, who are also members of the Chamber, but they receive no emolument. These are also annually elected by the Chamber.

THE QUALIFICATIONS REQUIRED TO BECOME A DEPUTY AND AN ELECTOR.

We shall now proceed to specify the several qualifications required to be possessed by every candidate, before he can be elected a Deputy of a department, as well as those which are essential to be an elector:—

1st. A Deputy must be a Frenchman, either by birth or naturalisation, and be in the full possession of all his rights political and civil.

2d. No person can be a Deputy who on the day of his nomination has not completed the *fortieth* year of his age; and he must possess freehold landed property on which he pays the sum of 1,000 francs annually in direct taxes, the nature of which will be explained hereafter; but to supply any deficiency he can take out a *patente* as merchant or banker to the necessary amount, without following the avocation.

Age, abstractedly considered, has doubtless some claim to deference; but we see no reason why it should be regarded as a criterion of capability for State affairs, as it does not always entail either profound knowledge or useful experience. We are therefore inclined to regret that 40 years of age should be an indispensable qualification to become a member of the Chamber of Depu-

ties in France, when we reflect how many persons at that period of life have, from various causes, lost that vigour of intellect, elasticity of mind, and strength of constitution that are necessary for arduous undertakings, as well as the humiliating proscription it involves on thousands who, in all the glowing energies of youth, might shine in the Senate. In England, her most eloquent and exalted statesmen have made their début in the Senate at an age when they had barely attained their majority; as Chatham, Pitt, Fox, Sheridan, Brougham, Canning, Peel, and others too numerous to mention.

The qualifications required of an elector are similar to the preceding, except that he is eligible to vote on having completed the *thirtieth* year of his age. To have committed an act of insolvency, or suffered any civil degradation, or the being under the surveillance of the *Haute Police,* disqualifies a person for becoming an elector. He must pay an annual contribution of 300 francs in direct taxes on his landed freehold property, or possess a *patente* to that annual value, which alone, if he have possessed it one year, is a sufficient qualification; he must also have his real or virtual residence in the department in which he intends to vote; he may, however, change his residence from one department to another in which he pays direct contributions, but he has no right of election in the latter, if, within the preceding four years, he had exercised that privilege in another department, except in the case of a dissolution of the Chamber. An elector can, on no consideration, vote in two different departments at the same general election.

This is certainly a very singular law for electing the representatives of a nation. It has generally been held as a maxim, that property should be represented, and not number. Supposing, for argument's sake, that all the electors of one entire department should choose their domicile in another, upon that hypothesis, the department so abandoned would not be represented at all.

The prefect of the department decides in the first

instance on the validity of the qualifications claimed by the electors, and makes out and publishes annually a list of all those whom he considers qualified; such, however, who are rejected by the prefect (from causes relative to their civil rights, etc.) have their appeal to the *Cours Royales;* and if any dispute arises relative to the payment of their contributions or their civil or political residence, their case is decided by the *Conseil d'Etat.* And if, after an order from either of these courts, the prefect refuses to insert the name of an elector in the general list, he is subject to a fine from 200 to 500 francs, and is interdicted from exercising any public functions for a term of twenty years.

We shall now proceed to lay before our readers the principle and mode of elections.

After every new election, the lists of the Deputies returned are forwarded by the several prefects to the Minister of the Interior, who sends them to the President of the Chamber; they are then examined by committees, who make their report to the Chambers as to the validity of the elections.

In each department there is one *grand collége*, convoked by the King in the *chef-lieu* of the department, which is called *le collége électoral du département*, to which his Majesty appoints a president.

This college is composed of persons paying the highest rate of direct taxes, beginning with the largest contributor, and descending until *one fourth* of the whole number of electors in the department have been nominated to form the grand college. The members of the grand colleges have also the faculty of voting in the inferior colleges; this in France is called the *double vote.* The *inferior electoral colleges* are composed of all the electors who pay at least 300 fr. per annum in direct taxes. One of these colleges is convoked in each electoral *arrondissement*, or district, into which the department is divided. To these colleges there are also presidents, who are named by the King. The depart-

ment of the Seine, for instance, returns twelve deputies, and is divided into eight inferior colleges or electoral districts, each of which returns one member only, and the remaining four are elected by the grand departmental college which is at Paris.

To prevent disorder and confusion the following arrangements were made: if there be more than 600 electors in an inferior college, it is divided into sections with not less than 300 electors in each; these sections have a vice-president, etc. In the few instances where the total number of electors does not exceed 600 in the whole department they assemble in one college only.

The presidents and vice-presidents have the supreme and sole authority over the regulations and internal police of the colleges and sections in which they preside. The military are in no case allowed to interfere. The sittings of these colleges are restricted to *ten days* at most.

The name, qualification, and residence of each elector must be handed to the president previous to his giving his vote, which the elector writes privately and gives to the president, who deposits the bulletin in an urn destined to receive the suffrages of all the electors, whose names are inscribed on a register by the secretary, or by one of the scrutineers. The name of the candidate for whom an elector votes is not seen by any person prior to its being thrown into the general urn. The names are then taken out, read, counted, and a list made, specifying the number of votes given to each candidate. This is called the *tour de scrutin*. The bulletins on which the names of the candidates are written by the electors are then committed to the flames. By this means no one can ascertain how the votes are given, so that even a public functionary may vote against the very Minister under whom he is employed. These matters are certainly better understood in England, where every elector declares publicly for which candidate he votes.

No candidate is considered as elected on the two first

tours de scrutin, if he have not obtained at least *one* vote more than a third of the total number of the members composing the college, as well as *one* vote more than *half* the number of all the votes already given. If, after the two first scrutinies, there remain any electors to vote, the *bureau* of the college draws up a list of the candidates who on the second scrutiny have obtained the greatest number of votes. Though the nomination of a Deputy is decided by a plurality of votes, yet in the case where two candidates have an equal number, the *elder* of the two has the preference.

No prefect, sous-prefect, or general officer commanding a military division, can be elected for the department in which he exercises his functions.

We shall now give a general list of all the departments, with the *chefs-lieux*, where the union of the electoral colleges takes place—the names of the electoral arrondissements in each—the number of Deputies for each department—and the number of electors; by which it will be seen there are not 100,000 electors in the Kingdom. It will be seen in the sequel, that by a law passed since the Revolution of 1830, the number of electors has been considerably increased; but, as it still falls short of 200,000, the proportion seems small when compared with the great mass of the population.

A Table of the Names of the 86 Departments, the Capital Towns where the Electoral Colleges are held, the number of Deputies returned by each Department, the number of Electoral Colleges, and the number of Electors in each Department.

Note. We have given the population of each department, when speaking of crimes and punishments; we therefore have not given it here.

DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.	NUMBER OF DEPUTIES.	NUMBER OF COLLEGES.	NUMBER OF ELECTORS.
Ain.	Bourg.	5	3	584
Aisne.	Laon.	6	4	1,364
Allier.	Moulins.	4	2	851
Ardèche.	Privas.	3	2	446
Ardennes.	Mézières.	5	2	602
Arriége.	Foix.	3	2	359
Aube.	Troyes.	3	2	695
Aude.	Carcassonne.	4	2	1,228
Aveyron.	Rhodez.	5	3	743
Bouches-du-Rhône.	Marseille.	5	3	1,269
Calvados.	Caen.	7	4	2,805
Cantal.	Aurillac.	3	2	602
Charente.	Angoulême.	5	3	1,050
Lower Charente.	La Rochelle.	7	4	1,374
Cher.	Bourges.	4	2	643
Corrèze.	Tulle.	3	2	528
Côte-d'Or.	Dijon.	5	3	1,460
Côtes-du-Nord.	Saint-Brieuc.	6	4	936
Creuse.	Gueret.	3	2	431
Dordogne.	Périgueux.	7	4	1,291
Doubs.	Besançon.	4	2	585
Drôme.	Valence.	3	2	568
Eure.	Evreux.	7	4	1,936
Eure-et-Loir.	Chartres.	4	2	1,081
Finistère.	Quimper.	6	4	950
Gard.	Nimes.	5	3	1,197
Upper Garonne.	Toulouse.	7	4	1,425
Gers.	Auch.	5	3	1,218
Gironde.	Bordeaux.	8	5	2,585
Hérault.	Montpellier.	5	3	1,828
Ille-et-Vilaine.	Rennes.	7	4	1,302
Indre.	Châteauroux.	3	2	673
Indre-et-Loire.	Tours.	4	2	985
Isère.	Grenoble.	6	4	1,249
Jura.	Lons-le-Saunier.	3	2	588
Landes.	Mont-de-Marsan.	3	2	565
Loir-et-Cher.	Blois.	3	2	742
Loire.	Monthrison.	5	3	852
Upper Loire.	Le Puy.	3	2	598

DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.	NUMBER OF DEPUTIES.	NUMBER OF COLLEGES.	NUMBER OF ELECTORS.
Lower Loire.	Nantes.	6	4	1,165
Loiret.	Orléans.	5	3	1,288
Lot.	Cahors.	6	4	649
Lot-et-Garonne.	Agen.	3	3	1,507
Maine-et-Loire.	Angers.	7	4	1,533
Manche.	Saint-Lô.	7	4	1,650
Marne.	Châlons.	5	3	1,099
Upper Marne.	Chaumont.	4	2	600
Mayenne.	Laval.	5	3	911
Meurthe.	Nancy.	5	3	897
Meuse.	Bar-le-Duc.	4	2	606
Morbihan.	Vannes.	6	4	835
Moselle.	Metz.	7	4	893
Nièvre.	Nevers.	4	3	653
Nord.	Lille.	12	8	2,860
Oise.	Beauvais.	5	3	1,356
Orne.	Alençon.	7	4	1,182
Pas-de-Calais.	Arras.	7	4	1,950
Puy-de-Dôme.	Clermont.	7	4	1,211
Lower Pyrénées.	Pau.	5	3	445
Lower Rhine.	Strasbourg.	6	4	794
Upper Rhine.	Colmar.	5	3	535
Rhône.	Lyon.	5	3	2,131
Upper Saône.	Vesoul.	3	4	611
Saône-et-Loire.	Mâcon.	7	4	1,777
Sarthe.	Le Mans.	7	4	1,340
Seine.	Paris.	12	8	10,193
Lower Seine.	Rouen.	10	6	4,373
Seine-et-Marne.	Melun.	5	3	1,070
Seine-et-Oise.	Versailles.	7	4	1,408
Deux-Sèvres.	Niort.	3	2	771
Somme.	Amiens.	7	4	1,811
Tarn.	Albi.	4	2	1,273
Tarn-et-Garonne.	Montauban.	4	2	1,092
Var.	Draguignan.	5	3	753
Vaucluse.	Avignon.	3	2	489
Vendée.	Bourbon-Vendée.	5	3	994
Vienne.	Poitiers.	4	2	955
Upper Vienne.	Limoges.	4	2	752
Yonne.	Auxerre.	5	3	887
Departments whose Electors unite in one College only.				
Corsica.	Ajaccio.	2	1	50
Lower Alpes.	Digne.	2	1	200
Upper Alpes.	Gap.	2	1	137
Lozère.	Mende.	2	1	363
Upper Pyrénées.	Tarbes.	3	1	205
Eastern Pyrénées.	Perpignan.	2	1	446
Vosges.	Epinal.	5	1	414
			Total number of Electors.	99,396

The total number of Electors is 99,396, out of which number it has been ascertained that there are about 70,000 who are landholders, and the remainder enjoy this privilege from *patentes*, etc.

It is, however, necessary to observe, that although the number of electors deriving their privilege of voting for deputies of departments by virtue of their landed property is estimated at 70,000, yet it is evident that the present state of things, as regards the possession of property can hardly survive the existing generation of freeholders; for, according to the *Code Civil*, there can be no entail, but the land must be equally divided. There is indeed an exception with respect to those opulent families who can afford to establish a *majorat* in favour of their eldest sons, but these are comparatively few in number.

Thus, then, this subdivision of property must necessarily leave many families without a head; and integral property being thus reduced to fractional parts, it will frequently happen, where the small landed estates of a freeholder are barely sufficient to confer the privilege of giving his vote at an election, that not one of his descendants will inherit that right. For instance, a landed estate of 6,000 francs a year, which in France is considered a handsome income, supposing the tax on the nett revenue arising from this land to be estimated at 7 1/2 per cent., which is about the average calculation, the proprietor will have to pay 450 fr. land-tax annually, which gives him the right of election. But if this property be divided at his death between two children only, neither of them would have an inheritance that would furnish the *quota* of land-tax required as a qualification, unless the tax were raised to 10 per cent., as at 7 1/2 it would produce on 3,000 fr. revenue only 225 fr. a year. Thus the right of election derived from landed property would be lost to the estate by the division; and the proprietors, if they wished to become electors must take out *patentes* so

as to complete the qualification of 300 fr. a-year. Consequently in a few years the number of freehold electors must be materially reduced. The State must also suffer, as persons of small fortune will not be able to pay their taxes in proportion. What has been said of an elector applies equally to those persons who wish to become members of the Legislative Body. This state of things which is unique in Europe, required, and indeed obtained, the most serious attention of Government, and M. de Villèle in 1826 proposed his projet de *loi d'aînesse*, which was intended to have re-established in a certain degree the law of primogeniture, and which obtained a majority in the Chamber of Deputies, but was lost in the Chamber of Peers. It was pretended that such a law was at variance with the *Code Civil* as well as with public opinion.

THE CABINET MINISTERS.

Having explained the nature and functions of the legislative branches of the constitution, we shall now give an account of the organisation and functions of the several departments of State and other public offices of Government.

The Cabinet consists of nine Ministers, *viz.*

I. MINISTER OF FINANCE.

The salary of this Minister was formerly 150,000 francs, but in 1828 the Chamber of Deputies reduced it to 120,000 francs per annum. This Minister receives all the taxes from the receivers-general, and all the other revenues of Government. He pays all the other departments of State, the interest of the public debt, all pensions, etc., etc. To this Ministry are appended certain offices, the chiefs of which are called Directors, but who are under the immediate control of the Minister of Finance, *viz.*, the directors-general of direct and indirect taxes, customs, registries and domains, posts, lottery, woods and forests and the mint.

The salaries of these directors vary from 40 to 50,000 fr. per annum. There is a receiver-general of taxes in each department, a special receiver for each arrondissement, and a *percepteur* or collector in each commune, who pay the receipts to the receiver-general of the department.

2. MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR.

Salary 120,000 *francs.*

This is in fact the most important department of State, and no one but a man of great talents and of general knowledge is competent to conduct it. It is sufficient to state that this important Ministry has been filled by men of very great capacity since the Restoration, viz. Lainé, Decazes, Siméon, Corbière, and Martignac. This Minister is in direct correspondence with all the civil authorities of the Kingdom; no local tax can be raised, nor any disbursements made, in any of the departments, districts, or communes, without his authority. He has the superintendence of the general police, prisons, and convicts condemned to the galleys, until they arrive at sea ports. Under his direction are public roads and bridges, mines, public buildings, poor and work-houses, charities and hospitals, fine and useful arts, the National Guard of all France, the censorship of all theatrical pieces, the Royal Institute, the public libraries, and government archives; the examination of passports of the persons arriving from foreign countries; and he receives all reports on matters concerning the *Haute Police* from the prefects and sous-prefects of the departments, as well as from the Prefecture of Police at Paris. Three copies of every book must be sent to his office before it can be published; and if its tendency is considered dangerous to public morals or to the tranquillity of the State, the entire edition is seized and remains sequestrated until a decision is made by a court of law. All licences (called brevets) are granted at this office to printers and booksellers,

and are withdrawn should the titulars be convicted of a libel against the Church or State.

This Minister also grants pensions to men of letters, and pays the Protestant clergy. He grants premiums for divers objects of national industry and general utility. Under this Minister are also Directors who take cognizance of the following branches :—

Viz. 1. Agriculture, the breeding of horses, etc.
2. Hospitals and poor houses.
3. Public roads, bridges, canals, and mines.
4. Public buildings, monuments, etc.

In the course of this work will be found the details of the expenditure of this Minister, according to his Budget.

3. MINISTER OF JUSTICE AND KEEPER OF THE SEALS.

Salary 120,000 *francs.*

This Minister is at the head of the law department, though he seldom presides in any court of justice. On important occasions, however, he presides in the Court of Cassation, which, as its name infers, is a Court of Appeal. He is in correspondence with all the law officers of the Crown throughout France, and takes cognizance of the cases of all criminals after conviction, all applications for Royal mercy, or for any other favour for criminals, being made through this channel. In England such matters come under the cognizance of the Home Secretary.

4. MINISTER OF MARINE AND COLONIES.

Salary 120,000 *francs.*

This Department has the direction of the Navy and the Colonies of France ; it has also the direction and superintendence the galley-slaves at the seaports.

5. MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

Salary 150,000 *francs.*

This Minister is in correspondence with all ambassadors, chargés d'affaires, consuls, etc. His duties do not

differ from those of the Minister of the same department in England, except that all passports to pass the frontiers of France must nominally be countersigned by him, for which a demand is made of 10 francs. Natives, as well as foreigners returning to their own country, are exposed to this demand, but in practice it has almost ceased to be exacted.

6. MINISTER OF WAR.

Salary 120,000 *francs.*

This Minister is in correspondence with all commanders and generals of divisions of the army. He receives all military dispatches, orders the movements of troops, directs and controls all the general and extraordinary expenses of military expeditions. He has the charge of the recruiting, clothing, provisioning, and paying of the army; has the supreme direction of the asylums for invalids at Paris and at Avignon—the latter founded by Bonaparte: he has also the sole control of the gunpowder and saltpetre manufactories, all which belong to Government, the barracks, military hospitals, arsenals, depots and magazines of military stores, Government foundries and manufactories of fire-arms. This Department pays all officers on active service, on half-pay, or on retired pensions, as well as the allowances to officers' widows and orphans. This Minister is the head of the Ordnance, and has the direction of military schools. He has likewise the organisation and inspection of the corps of gendarmerie, now called the *Garde Municipale* of Paris, as well as in the departments. He issues general orders relative to the regulation and discipline of the army.

7. MINISTER OF ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

Salary 120,000 *francs.*

This Minister is in direct correspondence with the Court of Rome; he publishes all bulls, briefs, etc.; no-

minates all Archbishops, Bishops and other clerical functionaries. He has the administration of the whole expenses attending cathedrals, churches, convents, etc., etc.

8. MINISTER OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Salary 100,000 *francs.*

This Minister is Grand Master of the University, and has nothing to do with religious instruction; his functions are strictly confined to secular education. He nominates the different functionaries in the public academies and faculties, and in academic councils, authorises the opening of private boarding-schools for both sexes, and regulates the books to be admitted into all establishments for public instruction; he grants diplomas in the faculties of law and physic, and has the control over the receipts of colleges; he fixes the pensions of retired functionaries, and grants aid and indemnities to collegiate corporations. He has the superintendence of primary and preparatory schools; fixes the expenses of the Royal colleges; has the administration of the domains belonging to the University, etc., etc. To this Ministry a Council is attached consisting of nine members, of which the Minister is President.

9. MINISTER OF COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Salary 120,000 *francs.*

This is entirely a new Ministry, many parts of which formerly belonged to the departments of the Ministers of Finance and the Interior. This Minister is in correspondence with the Chambers of Commerce, and has the direction of all matters relating to trade, manufactures, and national industry. He nominates Exchange Brokers, with the exception of those of Paris, who are appointed by the Minister of Finance; examines the demands made for the establishment of assurance offices, with their rules and regulations; directs all measures relating to the periodical exhibition of the productions of in-

dustry ; grants patents for inventions ; establishes or suppresses fairs and markets as circumstances may require ; examines into the qualification of merchants who are candidates for the office of Judges in the Commercial Courts ; in fact he has the special jurisdiction of whatever may be deemed necessary for the encouragement and prosperity of the commerce and manufactures of France and her colonies.

Since the Restoration there has always been a President of the Council of Ministers, or *Premier Ministre*, with the exception of the period of the Martignac administration.

Each of these cabinet ministers presents his own budget of expenses to the Chamber of Deputies, which is referred to a committee specially appointed for that purpose. It sometimes happens that this committee proposes a reduction in some of the items of these ministerial budgets, and that this reduction is adopted by the Chamber. This was very sensibly felt in the session of 1828, when the salaries of Ministers were reduced 30,000 francs a-year, besides suffering many other important modifications.

After each budget has been discussed, the *ensemble* of the *grand budget* is put to the vote. The accounts of all the ministers, prefects, sous-prefects, mayors, etc., are sent to the Audit Office at Paris, called *la Cour des Comptes*, to be examined. The budgets of the communes, however, which are under 10,000 fr. a-year, and those that are upwards of 100,000 francs a-year are sent, not to the *Cour des Comptes*, but to the Minister of the Interior, in order that he may see that the local expenses were just and necessary.

CHANCELLOR OF FRANCE.

This functionary is neither a cabinet minister nor necessarily a peer of the realm, but is nominated by the King to sit as President in the Chamber of Peers, a situation similar to the Speaker of the House of Lords in England ;

he has also the charge of keeping a registry of births, marriages, and deaths of the Royal Family. His salary is 100,000 francs per annum.

Although it is not the object of this work to enter in a detail of the results produced by the revolution of 1830, still it will be necessary to point out the changes made in the legislature as well as the new organization of the cabinet.

THE PEERAGE.

By the Charter of 1830 it is declared that the sittings of the Peers shall be public like those of the Deputies.

The power vested in the King by the Charter *octroyée* of Louis XVIII, to assemble the Peers by ordonnance when the Deputies are not sitting, is withheld by the new Charter of 1830, excepting in the case of their being called together to sit as a court of justice, and on such occasions they can only exercise their judicial functions. By a law passed in December 1830, the Peerage in no longer hereditary.

CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.

By the new Charter the age of admissibility is reduced from forty to thirty years, and in place of the condition required by the old Charter of the payment of a thousand francs in direct taxes, a Deputy is only required to possess the other qualifications determined by law.

In like manner, the age at which an elector can exercise his functions is reduced from thirty to twenty-five years; and, in place of the payment of three hundred francs in direct taxes, stipulated by the old charter, the qualification is left, as in the case of the Deputies, to be determined by subsequent enactments. A new electoral law has accordingly since been passed, the leading provisions of

which are, that Deputies shall pay five hundred francs, and electors two hundred francs in direct taxes; and the clause of the old Charter remains adapted to this alteration, by which it is declared, that if there be not fifty persons of the age of twenty-five years who severally pay the qualifying amount of direct taxes, that number shall be completed by the parties next in succession who pay the greatest amount of direct taxes. The nomination of the Presidents of the Electoral Colleges which was formerly vested in the King, is now vested in the electors; and the President of the Chamber of Deputies, who was formerly chosen by the King from a list of five members presented by the Chamber, is now elected by the Deputies themselves at the commencement of each session.

The salary of the President of the Chamber, which was formerly 100,000 francs per annum, with hotel, horses and equipage, is now reduced to 4,000 francs a-month, payable only during the time of session.

By a law passed since the late Revolution, no prefect can sit in the Chamber of Deputies; but other public functionaries, on being re-elected, as in England, are not necessarily excluded.

The Charter of Louis XVIII gave the initiative in the proposal of new laws exclusively to the King, but that of 1830 makes it a common right to the three branches of the Legislature, with the exception of taxation enactments, the initiative in which is given exclusively, as in England, to the representatives of the people. Even by the old Charter, however, the want of the initiative might in some degree be supplied by an address or *supplication* to the King, which privilege was expressly reserved to both Chambers by the 19th article.

The 14th article of the old Charter, on which was founded the two celebrated ordonnances of the 25th of July 1830, is expressly abrogated by the corresponding clause of the new Charter, in as far as it conferred on the King the power of making regulations and ordonnances required for the safety of the State, with the addition of an

express declaration that the King shall never have the power to suspend the laws themselves, or to dispense with their execution. It is further declared that, unless sanctioned by law, no foreign troops shall be admitted into the service of the state.

The press is now under the protection of trial by jury, and thus enjoys a degree of liberty or licence, whichever it may be called, not particularly agreeable to the branch *cadette* or its ministers, whose political principles are not easily distinguishable from those of many of the enlightened ministers of the Restoration.

THE KING AND HIS CABINET.

The King does not now always preside at a Cabinet Council. Under the late government the King, and generally also the Duke d'Angoulême, *assisted* at the proceedings of the Council. Since the Revolution of 1830, during the administration of M. Laffitte, this course was also followed by Louis-Philippe and the Duke d'Orléans; but M. Casimir Périer, whose will is at least as strong as his judgment, on his accession to affairs is said to have stipulated that the sittings of the council should take place in his own hotel, so that the light of the King's presence and the assistance of the Duke of Orléans have since been usually dispensed with.

No change has taken place in the organisation of the ministries of foreign affairs, of war, finances, marine, and justice. With the presidency of the Council M. Casimir Périer now combines certain branches of the business formerly performed by the Minister of the Interior, such as the *personnel*, including the nomination of and correspondence with the prefects, and the superintendence of the *haute-police* of the kingdom. The other branches of the home department are now under the direction of a Minister entitled "the Minister of Public Works and of Commerce," the separate ministry of commerce having been suppressed. Under the head of Public Works are

probably included the direction of the theatres, the encouragement of literature, and the patronage of the fine arts, which are now confided to the care of this minister. The charge of the University of France and of public worship is now confided to a single minister, with the title of "*Ministre de l'Instruction Publique et des Cultes.*" The office of Chancellor, which was never of any real utility, has been abolished. Since the Revolution of 1830, the salaries of the Ministers have been reduced to 100,000 francs *per annum*.

CONSEIL D'ÉTAT (Council of State).

The Counsellors of State are appointed by the King, either for ordinary or extraordinary service, or as mere honorary members of the Council, at which, since the Restoration, the Keeper of the Seals always presides. They deliberate, in the first instance, on all bills or *projets de loi*, which are laid before them by the Ministers, previously to their submitting them to the Chambers. The Ministers, as well as the directors-general of the several administrations, have seats in this assembly. Upon the demand of any member of the Cabinet, the President of the Council of State may convoke the whole Council, or only two or more of the sections into which it is divided.

This Council, for ordinary affairs, is limited to 24 members, and is divided into four sections :—

1. Legislation and litigation, which is by far the most important in the Council of State.
2. The Interior and Commerce.
3. Finance.
4. War and the Navy.

The *Legislative Section* deliberates on all law-projects and regulations respecting civil, criminal, and ecclesiastical affairs laid before it by the respective Ministers. This section is in fact a *tribunal*, as it settles all mat-

ters in dispute between individuals and the officers of State, and its decisions are final and without appeal. This is an unprecedented mode of decision in a constitutional Government, as the party is not judged by his peers. The subject is contending with the State, which judges its own cause; hence many of the vexatious and arbitrary proceedings during the government of Napoleon. But, nevertheless, such an institution as the Council of State, at which Bonaparte in person always presided, was of use, as (according to M. Thibaudeau, Counsellor of State under Napoleon, in his very interesting *Mémoires sur le Consulat*) the opinions of many of its enlightened members had a very salutary effect on their chief, and often prevented many arbitrary projects from passing. But *then*, it must be observed, there was no public discussion in the Legislative Body, nor durst the Peers take any public notice of such subjects. We, as Englishmen, consider the Council of State as an *imperium in imperio*; but many enlightened French statesmen consider it a highly useful institution, as the numerous litigations emanating from the Revolution, if brought before a court of law, would many of them be as long before they were decided as the cases brought before the English Court of Chancery. This section has also the power of directing all prosecutions of public functionaries for neglect of duty or abuse of their authority. Since the late Revolution, its sittings are open to the public.

The *Section of the Interior* meets regularly once a week, and takes cognizance of all matters connected with internal and colonial commerce, public roads, bridges, canals, mines, departmental police, etc.

The *Section of Finance* deliberates on all matters relative to custom-house duties, post-offices, direct and indirect taxes, and whatever is connected with financial affairs.

The *Section of War and Marine* takes cognizance of all matters connected with the administration of the army and navy.

The Counsellors of State employed on actual or ordinary service receive each a salary of 12,000 francs per annum, but if they hold any other situation or emolument under Government, under 20,000 francs, they receive only a part of their salary as Counsellors of State. Those named for *service extraordinaire* who are generally persons holding other situations, and who may be called upon to attend the Council, as well as those called honorary members, who are never summoned to the Council, receive no salary whatever. To the Council of State are attached the *Maitres de Requêtes,* who are likewise appointed for ordinary and extraordinary service, and some are merely honorary. The functions of the former are to draw up all acts of the Council, and they receive a salary of 6,000 francs a-year; but if they hold other situations they only receive half that salary; the others are not paid. The office of *Maitre de Requêtes* may be considered as the first step towards the rank of Counsellor of State. There are also other individuals appointed to this Council called *Auditeurs,* who are merely present at the discussions for the purpose of initiating themselves into the routine of the business brought before the Council, and to prepare themselves for future service when called upon. They receive no emolument. The office of Counsellor of State, of whatever degree, as well as that of Master of Requests and of Auditor, is revocable at pleasure.

MINISTERS OF STATE.

These appointments are generally given to retired Cabinet Ministers by the King, as a reward for past services; their pensions are 20,000 francs a-year, and their situations are *sinecures.* Since the Revolution of 1830, these pensions have been reduced to 12,000 francs a-year.

PRIVY COUNCIL.

The King has also a Privy Council, the members of which are seldom summoned, as the business of the executive Government is entirely managed by the Cabinet Minister and the Council of State.

AUDIT-OFFICE, OR COUR DES COMPTES.

This Court receives and examines all the accounts of the different Ministers, and those of the Receivers-general and Prefects of the departments. It certifies the correctness of the general accounts published every year by the Minister of Finance.

It is divided for ordinary business into three Chambers, each having a President; but there is also a Chief President, who sits when all the three Chambers are united. The salary of the latter is 40,000 francs a-year, and the other Presidents 20,000 francs; they are appointed for life. Next in rank to the President of each Chamber is a Counsellor of Reference (*Référendaire*), who is charged with the duty of verifying the accounts; there is also a *Procureur-Général*, a title which corresponds with that of solicitor of some of the public offices in England, and who takes care to see that the public functionaries duly deliver all their accounts into this office within the period fixed by the law. In case of neglect, he proceeds against the offending parties, and demands the application of the penalties incurred by breach of duty. He is also charged to see that the Chamber holds its regular sittings. He transmits the decisions of the Court to the different ministers.

All functionaries are bound to furnish this Court with whatever information it may require. There is likewise a Chief Registrar, who receives and keeps a record of all accounts and vouchers transmitted to this office, and which remain in his custody till called for. The *Cour des Comptes* decides all litigations relative to the public accounts, and counsel may be heard on behalf of the parties interested.

PREFECTURES, SOUS-PREFECTURES, CANTONS, AND COMMUNES.

As these divisions and subdivisions of the Kingdom have been already explained, we shall now give an outline of the several functions of those officers to whom the civil administration of each is confided.

The Prefect may be considered the chief magistrate in his department; and, as well as the Sous-Prefect, is paid by Government, in proportion to the population and extent of his jurisdiction, at the *chef-lieu* of which the office for public business is always established. The salary of a Prefect in the provinces varies from 10 to 40,000 fr. per annum; that of the Sub-Prefect is 4,000 fr.; the Prefect of the department of the Seine, has 100,000 fr.

To each prefecture and sous-prefecture are attached Counsellors (*Conseillers de Préfecture* and *Conseillers d'Arrondissement*), who are likewise paid by Government, and whose sanction is required to all acts relative to affairs of litigation between the Prefect or Sous-Prefect and private individuals.

The Prefect of a department has the special administration (under the control of the Minister of the Interior) of whatever concerns the civil and political economy of his prefecture, and when necessary he convokes a General Council (*Conseil général*), which is composed of the most opulent and respectable persons in the department, appointed by the King, on the recommendation of the Minister of the Interior, but who receive no remuneration (1). Before this Council the

(1) A new law was presented to the Chamber of Deputies by M. de Martignac, during his ministry, proposing that the *Conseils-généraux* should be elected by those persons who are eligible to vote at the election of Deputies. His bill, or *projet de loi*, em-

Prefect lays all public matters for its approbation. He is at the head of the police and of the national guard within his prefecture. He directs all necessary repairs of public buildings, bridges, fortresses, walls and barriers of close towns, etc.; fixes the site of *voiries* (for the reception of rubbish, offal, etc.), slaughter-houses and manufactories considered dangerous to public health; and he directs the cleaning and paving of streets and high roads; has the inspection of all ports, quays, common sewers, fountains, poor-houses and hospitals, prisons, etc. He has also the superintendance of public libraries, museums, and primary schools, fixes the price of bread, and grants passports. The Prefect is in correspondence with all the subordinate functionaries of his department. He receives his instructions from the Minister of the Interior to settle the quota of all general taxes, and to provide for all departmental expenses.

The Prefect is in the receipt of the *octroi,* a tax levied on articles of general consumption, and paid on entering towns, and of all the rents of Government entrepots, for which he is accountable to the Treasury; of stalls and shambles in public markets, and slaughter-houses, and the sale of manure from the *voiries;* the fines of police, with other imposts, which will be seen under the head of finance.

The Prefect provides for local expenses, such as work and poor houses, hospitals, cleaning and lighting the streets, etc., from funds arising from the *octroi* (one-tenth only of which is carried to the account of Government), and from other sources already detailed. These local receipts and expenses are however distinct from the departmental expenses provided for by Go-

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braced many other popular points, but the committee to which it was referred rejected that proposed by ministers, and substituted so many amendments, that the bill was withdrawn. In doing so, M. de Martignac exclaimed prophetically : " *Nous marchons à l'anarchie ! ! !* "

vernment; nevertheless the Prefect must send all his accounts to the Minister of the Interior, who transmits them to the *Cour des Comptes*.

The functions of a *Sous-Prefect* are similar to those of a Prefect, as well as his obligations respecting his accounts of receipts and expenses of the public money. A *Juge de Paix* is at the head of every canton; as a civil officer his functions are similar to those of a *Sous-Prefect;* his general functions as a law officer will be explained when speaking of the law courts.

The Mayors of the communes are invested with similar powers to those of the prefects of departments. These, as well as the *sous-prefects*, have also their local receipts and expenses which are provided for in a similar manner to those of the prefects; and if the Mayors of communes require any extra funds for local expenses, they may, by the authority of the Legislature, raise a sum called *centimes communaux* from among the inhabitants of the commune. To the *mairies* are also attached municipal counsellors, who have the same functions as the general council of the prefecture. The Mayors enjoy no salary or emolument. They are invested with a special function, which qualifies them to celebrate marriages; these are always first published and solemnized at the *mairie* of the commune, where a marriage register is kept, as well as one of births and deaths, a notice of which the relatives of the parties are obliged to deposit at the office of the Mayor, under penalty of a fine in case of neglect. There is always a mayor in the town where the prefect resides. Paris, the metropolis of the Kingdom, is divided into twelve *mairies*, called municipal arrondissements, in each of which is a mayor with two adjoints.

By a law of Bonaparte, which is still in force, the names of all children are inscribed at the municipality within 24 hours after their birth; they are conveyed there by the father, midwife, nurse, and two witnesses, and their names and sex are ascertained and registered. This

was done, and is done, to prevent evasion of the law of conscription.

When a person dies, information must be sent within 24 hours to the Mayor of the commune, who sends a medical practitioner attached to his office to ascertain the cause of the death, and informs himself of the names of the physician and apothecary who attended the defunct. For this formality 20 francs are paid, for which however a common hearse is provided by the commune for those who require it; but persons in easy circumstances never avail themselves of it, but apply to the general undertaker who pays annually a sum to Government for the monopoly. In Paris *only*, a hearse must be used; in the country, the body may be carried on men's shoulders.

PREFECT OF POLICE IN PARIS, AND COMMISSARIES OF POLICE IN THE DEPARTMENTS.

Paris is distinguished from every other city by having a Prefect of police, who is specially charged with all matters relating to public order within the walls. His functions do not interfere with those of the Prefect of the department of the Seine, of which Paris is the *chef-lieu*, but the former is, nevertheless, in some degree subordinate to the latter, inasmuch as the Prefect of police is paid by the Prefect of the department; but in all matters relating to the preservation of the public peace, the Prefect of police communicates directly with the Minister of the Interior.

By a royal ordonnance of 1823, the salary of the Prefect of police of Paris was fixed at 50,000 francs *per annum*. The functions of this officer are extensive: he has the charge of the public safety and tranquillity; signs passports, and grants permission of residence within the walls of Paris; makes regulations relating to places of public resort, and to furnished hotels; superintends prisons and the classification of the prisoners; he directs the lighting,

watering, and clearing the streets of Paris from nuisances and incumbrances. This officer regulates the site of unwholesome manufactories; he has the *surveillance* of all articles exposed in the public markets, and confiscates those of bad quality. He is charged with the verification of weights and measures, the prevention of pauperism, and the examination of buildings in a state of dilapidation, or dangerous to the public safety. He has under his immediate orders the whole corps of police officers, the 48 commissaries of police belonging to Paris (four of whom are stationed in each *arrondissement*), and the corps of firemen. He has under his direction a body of men specially employed to assist persons in danger of drowning. In Paris a reward of 25 francs is paid to any person who takes a *dead* body out of the water, but if the body be *alive,* they get only 15; this, we suppose, is done to prevent a combination between persons throwing themselves into the water and those who rescue them.

In Paris the pay of a commissary of police is fixed at a net yearly salary of 8,000 francs. There is in every town a commissary of police, who is paid according to its population.

FINANCES.

Having given the reader some idea of the present Government of France, and of the duties of the various public functionaries, we shall proceed to offer a succinct account of the present state of the system of taxation, as well as of the resources of the Kingdom. Previously, however, to entering upon these subjects, it will be proper to give a sketch of the state of the finances before the Revolution of 1789, and from that period till the Restoration in 1814.

The great partiality shown to the privileged orders previous to the Revolution of 1789, and the consequent inequality of the system of taxation, form a striking contrast with the regularity and harmony which at present exist in every branch of the department of finance. Had the Ministers under the *ancien régime* been sincere in their professions of reform, and had they possessed that firmness and energy of character necessary to check inveterate abuses in the mode of taxation, we should perhaps never have heard of the Revolution. But it was the disorder and quackery which pervaded the whole system of finance, if a chaos of absurdities could be called a system, that produced the convocation of the States-General, the *Bed of Justice*, and the *Throne of Injustice!*

Of the various provinces of France, many were originally independent duchies, which in course of time were united to the Crown, either by conquest or by treaties. These provinces retained some of their laws after their incorporation with France. Many of these were absurd in themselves, and inconsistent with the general interests of the nation; yet such is the force of long-established habit and prejudices, that the people remained warmly attached to them, and vigorously resisted every attempt at the innovation of their privileges, either by Ministers or by the

Sovereign — until the overwhelming torrent of Revolution swept them away, together with all the institutions of the Kingdom. The privileges alluded to materially affected the imposts of France, as well in their nature as in the mode of levying them. Some provinces had been wholly exempt from certain taxes, with which others were overburthened; some voted their own imposts, while others were taxed by the Government.

The taxes of France before the Revolution may be classed under two heads, viz. the direct and indirect taxes. We shall commence with the former, which included the *taille*, the *capitation* or poll-tax, and the *vingtièmes* or twentieths. Previously to stating the nature of these imposts, it will be necessary to observe that France was divided into what was called *Généralités* (in number 32), *Pays d'Etat, Pays d'Elections*, and *Pays Conquis*.

GENERALITIES.

At the head of the generalities were intendants, who had receivers-general under them, and transmitted the amount of the receipts in each of their generalities to a comptroller-general, adding at the same time their opinion as to any reduction that might be required on the sums fixed on by the King in Council. The comptroller-general made his report to the Council of Finance; and if the reduction required obtained its sanction, an ordonnance was issued for that purpose.

PAYS D'ÉTAT.

These were the provinces of Languedoc, Provence, Brittany, and Burgundy, to which were added the small districts of *Pays de Foix*, the *Comté de Bigore*, the *Pays de Marsan*, the *Vicomté de Nebouzan*, *les Quatre Vallées*, *Pays de Soules* and *de Labour*, *le Béarn*, and *Lower Navarre*. These originally had the privilege of levying in their own name the taxes required for the

State, but in latter times they were levied by the States-General.

PAYS D'ÉLECTIONS.

In the early ages of the monarchy every district chose a certain number of officers, and authorised them to determine the proportion of the *taille* to be paid by each. These officers were called *Elus* (or the elected), and their districts were denominated Elections, and constituted the subdivisions of the generalities. In process of time the Sovereign assumed to himself the sole right of nominating these officers, who still retained their name in their several districts. Hence the provinces where there were no States-General were called *Pays d'Elections*; after a certain time these elections were discontinued, two of the principal inhabitants paying *taille* were chosen in each parish as receivers of the tax, and all disputes arising between them and the contributors were first referred to a sort of tribunal called an *Election*, from whose decision an appeal could be made to the *Cour des Aides*.

PAYS CONQUIS, OR CONQUERED COUNTRIES.

These were the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, the provinces of Alsace, Roussillon, Artois, French Flanders, Hainault, and Franche-Comté. There was no equality in the system of taxation of these countries; some of them had the privilege of voting their own imposts through the medium of their States-General, while others were taxed by the Crown; but they were all exempt from the *taille*.

TAILLE.

The *taille* was a tax so called because the collector kept a *tally* corresponding with one they delivered to those paying the tribute, and which served as a receipt for the payment. The *taille* was three-fold, viz.:

1. The real *taille*, which was levied upon real property.

2. The personal *taille*, which was levied on income arising from commerce and industry.

3. The mixed *taille*, which arose from both these sources.

From this tax, however, the military were exempt. The lands of the clergy and the *noblesse* were exempt if not engaged in trade or commerce.

PROCESS OF LEVYING THE TAILLE.

Throughout the *Pays d'Etat*, the process of collecting the *taille* was uniform. Letters-patent were issued by the King in Council, and addressed to the governor of the province, and to the officers composing the Board of Finance, authorising them to regulate the amount required by Government. The States having consented to the sums demanded, the province was called upon to settle its quota; each province was divided into dioceses and districts, which were authorised by the States to hold assemblies for the purpose of fixing the quota of the *taille* for each. The sums to be paid by each district and diocese were determined by a tariff drawn up by an officer of the *Cour des Aides*, assisted by surveyors and appraisers. This tariff contained an estimate of the value of property in each district.

The method of levying the *taille* in the *Pays d'Elections* was by an ordonnance issued by the King in Council, in which was stated the total sum to be raised in all the generalities, and the quota of each in the provinces.

Copies of this ordonnance were sent to the intendants and officers of the boards of finance in the different generalities, who decided upon the division to be made of the sum total imposed upon each, which decision they communicated to Government, who issued letters-patent to authorise the levying the sums stated as the quota of each *election*.

The receivers of taxes residing in each generality visited the several elections, to inquire into the state and pro-

bable value of the crops, and the result of their inquiry was drawn up in due form and transmitted to the comptroller-general. The officers of each *election* annually divided themselves among the several parishes, for the purpose of ascertaining the effective means of the inhabitants, and upon their report the quota of each parish was fixed, and an ordonnance issued for making the levy.

To fix the sum which was to be levied upon each parish, it was customary to draw up a statement of the landed property and other sources of income possessed by the proprietors; and the sum total required to be paid by each parish was estimated upon these statements, called rolls. Much care was taken, and many expedients adopted by the Kings of France, in order to insure justice and equity in drawing up these *rolls*. The intendants were directed to cause the rolls to be drawn up in their own presence, or in that of a commissioner appointed by them, who was bound to visit each parish, and convoke at least once a-year a general assembly of the inhabitants, for the purpose of making out a *procès-verbal* of the state of the parish.

This *procès-verbal* contained the declarations made by the inhabitants relative to their property of every description, and the amount of income arising from their industry. And in case any of the inhabitants made a false return of either their real or personal property, a surcharge was made upon the parish in the following year, the amount of which was allowed as a set-off against the contribution of the adjacent parish, which thus obtained a diminution of its imposts. The regulation consequently created a vigilant inquiry among the parishioners into the correctness of the statement of each inhabitant. The commissioners having informed themselves on every point relative to the real product of each parish, proceeded to fix the proportion to be paid by each individual. The *taille* was collected by persons nominated by each parish, chosen from among the richest parishioners paying *taille*.

These were responsible to Government, and the parish responsible to them.

It was calculated that had all exemptions been abolished the public revenue would have been increased about 30 millions of livres *per annum*. Even as the *taille* was then levied, however, this tax produced ninety one millions of francs.

VINGTIÈMES (THE TWENTIETH OF PROPERTY).

This tax was first established in 1750 and was levied upon all property of whatever description, but in 1754 it was taken off the amount of income arising from personal industry.

The clergy were alone wholly exempted from this tax; but in return, they increased their *don gratuit*, or gratuitous donation to Government. This impost produced 70,500,000 fr.

THE POLL TAX.

This tax was levied upon all the subjects of France; not even the clergy, nobility, or military were excepted from its operation. Mendicant friars, paupers, and persons not paying one livre *per annum* for the taille were alone exempted. The sum to be paid by each province was regulated by the King in Council, in the same manner as the taille; it produced 41,500,000 fr.

Having thus given an account of the direct taxes, we shall proceed to speak of those called indirect taxes, beginning with

THE FERME GÉNÉRALE.

This establishment was neither more nor less than a company of rich capitalists, who entered into an engagement with the Government to farm certain taxes. They paid annually into the treasury a fixed sum, for which they had the privilege of collecting those taxes, with an express condition that whatever might be the receipt of the company, the sum stipulated was alone to be paid to the Government. This condition constituted the distinc-

tion between the *ferme générale* and what was called the *régie générale*, as the latter was conducted solely on account of Government, which benefited or suffered by its profits and losses. Sometimes, however, the *régie* was allowed a share of the profits, in which case it was called *une régie intéressée*.

The revenues of the *ferme générale* arose from a monopoly in the manufacturing and sale of salt and tobacco; from a duty on the export and import of merchandise the produce of the colonies; and, finally, from a duty on all articles entering Paris, called *octroi*.

It will be instantly perceived how many and what gross abuses such a heterogeneous establishment was subject to, when we consider that both public and private interests were left at the mercy of a few unprincipled individuals. The *ferme générale* was estimated at 170,000,000 fr.

We have already explained in what manner the provinces of France became united into one Kingdom, and their privileges preserved by some of them after that union. Some were exempt from certain taxes, others were obliged to pay a duty on merchandise exported or imported from one province into another. This gave rise to the establishment of custom-houses in the very heart of the Kingdom, so that the commerce between two provinces was carried on as if between two foreign countries.

At length the celebrated COLBERT, Minister of Louis XIV, endeavoured to reform a system so prejudicial to internal commerce. But feeling that he was unable entirely to destroy such deeply rooted prejudices, he was forced to leave the choice of a free trade to the option of the provinces, many of whom acceded to his plan.

Some provinces, on the contrary, had never been willing to allow the establishment of custom-houses even upon the frontiers which communicated with foreign states; in these cases the Government established custom-houses on the frontiers of those provinces which communicated with the rest of the Kingdom. Thus the three

bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, preserved a free communication with foreign states, and the same duties on imports and exports were exacted from them as from any country not belonging to France.

RÉGIE GÉNÉRALE.

The *régie* included the collection of all duties called *aides*, which were levied on spiritous liquids and on other articles of consumption. It included also the collection of duties imposed upon all articles wrought in gold and silver, upon wrought iron, playing cards, leather, paper, starch, etc., etc.

The receipt of the *régie* was estimated at 51,500,000 fr.

The *marc d'or* was a duty levied upon persons appointed to public situations, and on all acts requiring the seal of the Chancellor.

THE CORVÉE

Was an impost extremely burdensome to the peasantry. It consisted in so many days' labour annually, of men, horses, oxen, and carriages, and was nominally applicable to the construction and maintenance of the public roads. Its produce was estimated in money at twenty millions of francs. The payment of the tax was optional in money or in labour. As it was a local tax, none of the money arising from it was received by Government.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE OF FRANCE IN 1785

RECEIPTS.

Taille	91,000,000
Vingtièmes	76,500,000
Poll Tax	41,500,000
Ferme Générale	170,000,000
Régie Générale	51,500,000
Administration of the Domaines	50,000,000
Local Taxes	2,000,000
Duties on cattle	1,100,000
Mint	1,100,000
Gun Powder	300,000
Lotteries	11,500,000
Public Diligences	1,100,000
Post Office and Horses	10,300,000
Contingent Revenues of the Crown	5,700,000
Marc d'or	1,700,000
Duties on Articles of consumption	10,500,000
Donation of the Clergy	11,000,000
Taxes raised in Corsica	600,000
Droits d'Aides	900,000
Miscellaneous Taxes	2,600,000
Turnpike Roads	20,000,000
Revenues of Hospitals, etc.	12,000,000
Octroi	27,000,000
	599,900,000
Deficit	12,200,000
	612,100,000

EXPENDITURE.

Interest of the public Debt	207,000,000
D°. of the floating Debt	27,000,000
Pensions	28,000,000
Army	105 600,000
Marine and Colonies	45,200,000
Foreign Relations	8,500,000
Expenses of the Royal Family	30,300,000
Schools for Painting, etc.	3,200,000
Collecting Revenues	58,000,000*
Salaries of Public Functionaries	13,400,000
Expenses of the Police	2,100,000
Repairs of Pavements	900,000
Expenses of Administration of Justice	2,400,000
D°. Gendarmerie	4,000,000
Prisons, etc.	400,000*
Donations, etc.	4,800,000
Ecclesiastical Expenses	1,600,000
Salaries of office keepers at the Treasury	2,000,000
Indemnities for Post Service	400,000
Premiums to Trades, etc.	800,000
Expenses of Haras or Royal Studs	800,000
lient of University, etc.	600,000
Expenses of different Academies	300,000
King's Library	100,000
Jardin du Roi, etc.	72,000
King's Printing-Office	200,000
Repairing of Courts of Justice	800,000
Intendant of Posts, etc.	450,000
Grant to the Order of Saint-Esprit	600,000
Expenses of Corsica	800,000
Making and repairing Roads	20,000,000
Hospitals	26,000,000
Miscellaneous Expenses	15,578,000
	612,100,000

* The expenses of the prisons in the provinces were paid out of the local receipt.

Notwithstanding the apparent excess of more than 12 millions of francs in the expenditure over the receipts, M. Neckar considered that he had left the finances in a very flourishing state, observing that a sum of 27,000,000 livres must be considered as a reimbursement on account of the national debt, and adding, that the extinction of life annuities and the anticipated increase in the receipts would cover the deficiency. M. Neckar, however, as will be seen hereafter, has been here in a strange contradiction with himself.

STATE OF THE FINANCES IN THE YEAR 1789, THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE REVOLUTION.

The disordered state of the finances induced Louis XVI to convoke an Assembly of the *Notables* for the purpose of receiving and carrying into execution the plan of M. de Calonne (who succeeded M. Neckar), for establishing a *general territorial impost*, and for giving a greater extension to the stamp duties. The failure and dismissal of M. de Calonne, added to subsequent events, led to the reinstatement of M. Neckar and to the convocation of the States-General in 1789.

We have shewn that the latter Minister, on quitting the treasury, presented a statement in which he represented the finances as in a flourishing state, there being, he said, only a *nominal* deficiency of 12 million livres, 27 millions having been paid off on account of the national debt, which would induce a belief that there was in reality a surplus of the receipts over the current expenditure of 15 million livres. But how are we to account for the statement he laid before the Assembly of the States-General upon resuming his *portfolio* in 1789, after five years' retreat? He there traces a glowing picture of the financial state of the Kingdom, and declares the actual revenue to be only 475,295,000 livres, while the real expenditure had been 531,533,000. M. Neckar proceeds to enumerate his ways and means for covering this deficiency

of 56,239,000 in the finances, and adds that upwards of 80,000,000 livres might have been added to the revenue by alterations in the mode of collecting the various imposts, without having recourse to the levying of any new taxes. The abolition of the privileges of exemption from particular taxes enjoyed by the clergy, he said, would increase the amount of the revenue between 10 and 12 millions annually. At the same time, under the head of expenditure appeared the sum of 4 millions as the annual interest of a loan which M. Neckar announced as necessary to meet the current expense of the first year of the new Ministry. It is however worthy of remark, that M. Neckar stated positively that the convocation of the States-General was not absolutely called for by the state of the finances; since, in addition to the resources already mentioned, he declares that there were pensions to the amount of 29 millions, and military salaries of between 10 and 12 millions, susceptible of material reduction, besides a sum of about 7 millions of livres remitted annually upon the amount of the taxes which might have been retained; and he added, that if, as on former occasions, a tax of 10 per cent. were imposed upon the interest paid to the national creditors, it would produce 20,000,000 f. of additional revenue. M. Neckar alluded also to sums destined for charitable purposes, as offering a resource in case of absolute necessity; and he concluded by observing, that if public credit were fully re-established, the extinction of 1,200,000 livres of annuities yearly would afford the facility of borrowing and expending from 20 to 30 millions of livres a-year, without increasing in any way the burdens of the people. Such was the utopian theory of M. Neckar; but we shall find in the sequel that these splendid visions were baseless, and left not a wreck behind.

The following was M. Neckar's statement of his ways and means for 1789: —

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
The principal items are as follows: —		The principal items are as follows: —	
Ferme Générale. . . .	150,107,000	The total expenses of the Royal Family.	33,240,000
Posts.	12,000,000	The expenses of the Department for Foreign Affairs. . . .	7,480,000
Duties on cattle at the markets of Sceaux and Poissy.	630,000	War Department. . .	99.160,000
Régie Générale des Aides et Droits réunis.	50,000,000	Marine and Colonies. .	40,500,000
D°. Domaines and Woods.	50,000,000	Long Annuities and life Annuities forming the National Debt. .	162,486,000
Lotteries.	14,000,000	Interest on Government Bonds and other public debts. .	44,300,000
Contingent revenues. .	3,000,000	Public salaries. . . .	20,094,000
Ordinary taxes and capitation.	110,000,000	Floating debt.	25.592,000
Vingtièmes.	46,000,000	Pensions.	29,560,000
Taxes in the Pays d'Etat.	24,556,000	And sundry minor expenses. making a total of	531,444,000
And sundry minor receipts, making a total of	475,294,000		

The statement which has already been given of the receipts and expenditure for 1785, is taken from a *compte rendu*, prepared by M. Neckar after he retired from office, a circumstance which may perhaps account for the extraordinary discrepancy between it and the above corresponding statement, for the year 1789, after he had resumed the charge of the department of finance. According to the former statement the deficiency is 12 millions, but by this it is 56.

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

But a very short time elapsed after M. Neckar's return to office before the National Assembly undertook, by a less circuitous route, to reform all abuses, by sweeping away at once all the institutions themselves to which the abuses were attached: of course, M. Neckar's plan was not adopted.

This Assembly found the taxes divided into five classes:

—1. Direct taxes, as we have before detailed.—2. The taxes arising from monopolies of salt and tobacco, which extended over a great part of the Kingdom; the exclusive privilege of selling spiritous liquors; and the tax on the right of freedom in the Corporation of Trades.—3. The duties on various articles of consumption and products of industry, such as the *droits d'aide*, and a similar tax, called *équivalens*, in Languedoc, *impôts* in Brittany, and *les quatre membres* in Flanders; the duties reverting to the inspectors of slaughter-houses, which were raised in almost all the provinces; the duties on leather, cards, and starch, which were exacted with great rigour from the manufacturers of those articles; the duty on stamping of iron and on the making of oils, which were imposed on about one-half the Kingdom.—4. Duties on imports and exports; tolls, as well as various duties on goods transported from one province to another, and on their entering into towns.—5. Duties on public acts, and registering of those acts, called *droits de contrôle*, and another duty, called *insinuation*, and many others too numerous to mention.

The National Assembly established, in lieu of the abovementioned imposts, the following contributions: —

1. The *contribution foncière*, land-tax.
2. *Mobilière*, tax on the rent of dwellings.
3. *Droits d'enregistrement*, a duty on registering all acts, deeds, etc.
4. Stamp duty.
5. Duty on mortgages.
6. Duty on licences to trades, etc.
7. Customs.

The National Assembly reserved two monopolies only, that of coining money and of making gunpowder. The *contribution foncière*, though levied on all lands without exception, had its *maximum* fixed at one sixth of the yearly revenue.

Under the head of *contribution personnelle* was comprehended:—

1. A tax equal to the value of three days' labour, and to which every person was subject.

2. A tax on servants and horses.

3. A property-tax of one twentieth on all incomes; this was estimated by the yearly value of the tenement held by the person taxed, supposing the value to exceed 100 francs a-year.

It is almost needless to observe, that none of the plans of this Assembly, or of those that followed it, were attended with any successful result.

CONDUCT OF THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY RELATIVE TO THE CLERGY.

The Abbé Expilly, in his "Geographical Dictionary of France," states the revenues of the clergy before the Revolution at 119,000,000 livres annually, and the number of ecclesiastics, including monks, nuns, and secular priests, at 406,482. But, of this number, 100,000 priests did not derive any emolument from the revenues of the Church; they lived upon their own incomes, or were supported by those who employed them as chaplains, tutors, etc., etc.; of the remaining 306,482, there were about 30,000 of the mendicant order, who had no fixed revenues, but lived upon the charitable donations of the faithful.

M. Neckar estimated the revenues of the clergy at 130 millions of francs, and M. de Talleyrand, in his speech in the National Assembly, rated them at 150 millions, of which 70 millions were derived from lands and 80 millions from tithes. Supposing the statement of M. de Talleyrand to have been correct, the revenues of the clergy were far from being enormous, since they afforded support to at least 275,000 monks, nuns, and secular priests, not to speak of lay persons who participated in these revenues, as domestics, visitors in the convents, etc., nor of the great number of persons who were relieved out of these funds: but supposing the 150 millions of francs to be divided amongst 275,000 individuals, who at the

lowest calculation were supported out of that sum, it would not furnish more than 545 francs to each.

The National Assembly, however, thought this too large a sum to be left in the hands of the clergy. The Bishop Talleyrand proposed, on the 10th of October 1789, that the Church property should be sold for the benefit of the nation, and that tithes should continue to be levied in form of a tax, and applied, with the addition of 20 millions, towards the support of the clergy.

Mirabeau proposed that the National Assembly should decree that the Church lands belonged to the nation, with a *proviso* that the clergy should be supported out of them; each curate to receive 1,200 livres *per annum,* besides his lodging. This proposition was adopted by a majority of 568 to 348.

On the 17th of March 1791, a decree was passed for the sale of the Church property to the amount of 400 millions, which the clergy offered to repurchase at that estimate, on condition that they should be left in quiet possession of the property. The offer however was rejected, as it was not favourable to the views of persons determined to enrich themselves by plundering the Church. At length a decree passed in the Assembly, fixing the *maximum* and *minimum* of the salaries of the clergy as follows:—

Archbishops	75,000 fr.	*per annum.*
Bishops, in large towns .	20,000	—
Ditto, in small towns .	12,000	—

The *maximum* of the pay of curates 6,000, and the *minimum* 1,000 fr.; vicars from 800 to 1,000 francs, according to the extent of their duties. It were needless to add, that all these salaries, as well as those who were to receive them, were at once *lopped off* by the axe of the GUILLOTINE!

ASSIGNATS.

On the memorable 19th of April 1791, the National Assembly put a finishing stroke to their absurd projects, by establishing a *paper currency* called *assignats*. From this moment the finances of the country were thrown into confusion. Persons having species were forced to take this paper at par, which at length fell to waste paper. As it is not intended to give a history of the *interregnum*, which may be said to have occurred between the deposition of Louis XVI and the restoration of Louis XVIII, or of the financial paroxysm which existed during the Revolution, we shall pass over that period. Indeed it would be in vain to attempt to discover any system of finance under the various revolutionary Governments which then succeeded each other.

The National Convention adopted the plan proposed by citizen Cambon, "*de battre monnaie sur la place de la Révolution.*" (La place Louis XV was then so called, as it was here that executions for state crimes took place.) This *system* naturally ended with the reign of terror.

The Directory imagined a *mezzo-termine;* it reduced the capital of the public creditor two-thirds, and the remaining third was dignified by the pompous title of the *tiers consolidé*, the consolidated third. At length this state of anarchy ceased, when Napoleon Bonaparte, by the *grace of bayonets*, made himself *First Consul*, and introduced a regular system of finance. Under the Government of the Directory there was no regular system of taxation; one set of persons, called Directors, had the excise, another had the tobacco, etc. These taxes under the Consular Government were consolidated under one head, and denominated *Droits réunis* (consolidated taxes), and were placed, as well as all other imposts, immediately under the direction of the Minister of Finance, then citizen Gaudin, afterwards created Duke de Gaëta. The Duke very truly

says in his Memoirs, (published in 1826, vol. 1, page 134): —

"That on the 20th brumaire, in the year VIII, no "vestige of finance existed in France; a miserable sum "of 167,000 francs was all that she possessed in specie in "the Public Treasury, and even that sum was the remains "of 300,000 francs which the Government had obtained "the day before."

When Bonaparte abdicated in 1814, his Finance Minister, the Duke de Gaëta, left the Imperial Treasury just as empty as he found the coffers of the Republic on the 18th brumaire an VIII, for it will be seen hereafter that there was a deficiency of 1,000 millions, which the Bourbon Government had to pay. It is a known fact, that on the approach of the allied armies to Paris, in 1814, the Empress Maria Louisa and her *imperial relatives,* as well as all the Ministers and other principal functionaries, left that city, and proceeded to Blois, the principal town in the department of Loire et Cher; they however took good care not to leave the cash behind them that was in the Treasury, and which the Imperial Family and the Ministers divided among them. The Comptroller of the Household, Baron de la Bouillerie, who filled the same situation under the Bourbons, contrived however to save 36 millions of francs from the wreck, as well as the Crown Jewels; the latter he honestly delivered up to Baron Dudon, who was commissioned by the Provisional Government to go to Orleans on purpose to recover them, where M. de la Bouillerie then was, with the ex-Empress Maria Louisa. The 36 millions were lodged by that faithful officer in the coffers of the Royal Treasury, and he and Baron Dudon brought the Crown Jewels with them to Paris.

THE SYSTEM OF TAXATION AFTER THE RESTORATION.

It will be necessary to describe the taxes and the method of raising them, ere we speak of the finances.

In France the taxes are twofold—direct and indirect; under the former are comprehended:—

1. *Contribution foncière* or land-tax.
2. *Contribution personnelle* and *mobilière.*
3. Tax on doors and windows.
4. Duty upon patents and licences to trade, and upon mines.

The *contribution foncière* is raised equally upon all lands or houses, in proportion to their nett revenue. The royal domains, and the woods and forests belonging to the State, are alone exempt from its operation.

The *contribution personnelle* and *mobilière* is divided into two parts:—

1. The *personnelle* is a kind of poll-tax, rated at three days' labour; the value of a day's labour is fixed by the Council-General of the department. Its *maximum* is 1 franc 50 centimes, and its *minimum* 50 centimes per diem. This applies only to men from 18 years and upwards; women and children are exempt.

2. The *taxe mobilière* is fixed according to the rent of a habitation, at the rate of 3 per cent. on the rent, and is levied upon all rents from 200 to 2,500 francs, which is the maximum to which the per centage extends. No person pays less than 5 francs, nor more than 80 francs per annum for the *taxe mobilière*, for which the landlord of the house is responsible to Government, and to whom the tenants are bound to produce, on demand, the receipts of their having paid their taxes. Persons living in furnished lodgings are not subjected to this tax. The tax *personnelle* and *mobilière* may be considered as one tax though produced from two different sources. In Paris and other

large cities one part is levied upon rent, and the other part is provided for by an additional duty on all articles of consumption, paid on their entering the town; this is called *octroi*, and is done to obviate the difficulty which would arise in collecting any fixed sum from every individual for the amount of 3 days' labour. This substitute for the *taxe personnelle* produces in Paris 4 millions per annum.

3. The tax levied on doors and windows that open into a street, court or garden depends upon the population of the town and upon the situation of the doors and windows, according to the following tariff.

POPULATION OF TOWNS AND COMMUNES.	Street-doors and gate-ways called *Portes cochères*.	Ordinary doors and windows of the first and second floors.	Windows of the third floor and all other floors.	HOUSES HAVING BUT 1 DOOR AND 1 WINDOW.	
				Door tax.	Window tax.
Under 5,000	1 fr. 60 c.	» fr. 60 c.	60 c.	» fr. 40 c.	20 c.
From 5 to 10,000	3 50	» 75	75	» 50	25
10 to 25,000	7 50	» 90	75	» 60	30
25 to 50,000	11 20	1 20	75	» 80	40
50 to 100,000	15 »	1 50	75	1 »	50
Above 100,000	18 80	1 80	75	1 20	60

This tariff is susceptible of increase or reduction, according as the amount received exceeds or falls below the sum required. When the contingent fixed upon is higher in amount than the produce of the tariff, the latter is proportionably increased; when it falls below it, the tariff is of course diminished. The proprietor or landlord of the house is alone chargeable with the door and window tax; the tenants have nothing to do with it.

DROITS DE PATENTES (LICENCE DUTY).

Every person following a profession, trade, or business,

including physicians and surgeons, are liable to this tax, which is divided into two heads, the *proportional tax*, which is 10 per cent. on the rent of the person's dwelling, and the *fixed tax*, which is rated according to the extent of the population of the towns in which the patentee exercises his trade or profession.

Trades, professions, etc., are divided into 7 classes; and the *fixed tax* is established according to the supposed profits. The maximum and minimum are laid down in the tariff, as follows: A merchant pays from 40 to 300 francs, according to the population of the place where he resides, which, in addition to the 10 per cent. on his rent, forms the total sum paid for his *patente*. Bankers, without any regard to the population of the town in which they reside, pay 500 fr. a-year; in like manner ship-brokers, waggon, coach, and boat proprietors pay 200 fr. annually. Market people who have carts, travelling hawkers and pedlars who have horses, pay 40 francs a-year: those on foot with packs, whether they have any fixed residence or not, pay 30 francs per annum. The persons exempt from this duty are, all public functionaries, farmers and labourers, clerks, journeymen, professors of the fine arts who sell their own productions only, army surgeons, midwives, postmasters, fishermen, carders and wool-spinners, washerwomen and cobblers, tripemen and street-hawkers: an exception is also made with regard to the proportional tax in favour of those who let furnished lodgings; these pay only one-fortieth of the rent of their house, instead of one-tenth, which others pay.

MINES.

The duties on mines are also twofold; one in proportion to the extent of the mine, and the other in proportion to its net produce; the former is 10 francs for every 100 square yards (*kilomètre*), and the latter never exceeds five per cent. on the net revenue after all expenses are paid. The proprietors of mines also pay a land-tax in proportion to the surface.

METHOD OF RAISING THE DIRECT TAXES.

Having briefly stated the nature of the direct taxes, we shall now shew the manner in which they are collected. We have described in the preceding pages, which treat of the finances before the Revolution, the method adopted with respect to the *taille;* the mode pursued at present regarding the direct taxes, is nearly the same, excepting that there are NOW NO EXCEPTIONS; when I say *now*, I mean before the Revolution of 1830.

The sum to be collected in direct taxes is annually voted by the Legislature. The law which fixes the amount to be collected throughout France, also settles the *quota* that each department is required to pay. A fixed sum, denominated the *principal*, is raised under the head of *contribution foncière, contribution personnelle et mobilière,* and a tax upon doors and windows, as before mentioned. These taxes seldom vary, but when an additional sum is required, it is effected by what is termed *centimes additionnels,* additional centimes, and which must have the sanction of the Legislature. These *centimes additionnels* however are permanent, and seldom or ever reduced.

Every year, in voting the budget, a clause is introduced authorising the respective departments to raise a certain sum that may be required for their expenses, not exceeding a limited number of *centimes* on each franc; these are called a grant of *centimes facultatifs*, by which a sum may be raised equal to that stated in the budget, or a part only of that sum, as circumstances may require. The *centimes facultatifs* are not permanent imposts, but depend upon the exigencies of the department.

Departments as well as communes may also, by the authority of Government, raise loans to meet their own local extraordinary expenses, and for which they pay interest, without any other responsibility to Government than rendering an account how the same have been appropriated.

The *communes*, under peculiar circumstances and with the consent of the Legislature, can also raise a tax called *centimes communaux* to defray local expenses, which, like those before mentioned, are only temporary.

The law having fixed the sum to be raised by each department, the Minister of Finance informs the prefect of the department, through the Minister of the Interior, of the sum required from his department, and he communicates the amount demanded to his sous-prefect and to the mayors. The sum thus assigned by the prefect to each arrondissement is subdivided by the Councils of the arrondissement and by the communes, and the amount allotted to each apportioned among the inhabitants by persons appointed for that purpose, called *répartiteurs*, who in England would be called Assessors.

These are 7 in number — the mayor of the *commune*, his deputy, and 5 landholders, of whom 2 at least must not have their residence in the commune. The assessors' duty is to fix the distribution of the tax as it regards the *contribution personnelle* and *mobilière*, when any alteration may be found necessary. These assessors are chosen by the sous-prefect of the arrondissement, but their nomination must be confirmed by the prefect. The assessors are liable to a fine if they refuse to act. They regulate taxable property, as far as concerns *les contributions foncières*, and they fix the scale. Lists of the assessments are made out, and the prefect puts them in force. It is evident, from what we have stated, that no exact estimate can be made of the proportion of the tax that each individual has to pay upon his landed property, all not being equally burdened.

In some departments, for instance, the land-tax is only 6 per cent., while in the department of the Seine it is 17 per cent. This great inequality arises from differences in the net produce of land.

The most distinguished Ministers of Finance in France have anxiously desired to equalise the land tax, and for this object they endeavoured to establish

what is termed a *cadastre*. By the term *cadastre* we are to understand the measuring and surveying of landed property, so as to ascertain its real value.

Before the Revolution of 1789, the *cadastre* had been loudly called for; it had even been acted upon in some provinces; and the electoral assemblies, in the year 1789, again solicited its adoption. The Constituent Assembly most cordially approved of it, but the entire change in the Government which shortly after took place prevented this plan from being carried into execution, and the law respecting the establishment of the *cadastre* remained a dead letter until the year 1803.

At this epoch, general and repeated complaints on the part of the landed proprietors obliged the Government to take it into consideration. At first it contented itself with subdividing into acres all arable and meadow lands, vineyards, woodland, etc. This mode of subdivision, however, involved the greatest inequality in the amount of the sums paid by the proprietors, as some were paying a third of their revenues, whilst others were paying a fiftieth; instances were even adduced of persons paying a hundredth part only.

Upon the repeated complaints urged against this great injustice, the Government was obliged to change this plan for another, which promised a more equal mode of taxing the landholders, and which it denominated a *cadastre proportionel*.

This fixes unalterably the limits of each person's landed property, and equalizes the tax he is subject to.

It consequently prevents an infinitude of litigations between the proprietors of land and their tenants. A commission has long been employed in carrying into effect this very desirable object; but it is impossible to say when their labours will terminate. The annual expense attending this commission varies from three to four millions, which is voted by the legislature, and appears in the budgets.

INDIRECT TAXES (*ci-devant droits réunis*, and under the *ancien régime* denominated *régie*).

These taxes are principally on articles of consumption. The first duty paid upon liquids is for its transit, and is called *droits de circulation*, or permit to be removed from one place to another, which is levied upon wine, brandy, etc., bought at the entrepot.

This duty is as follows:

Wine in the wood 1 fr. 50 cent. per hectolitre, about 120 English quarts.

Wine in bottles 10 fr. per hectolitre.

Cider, perry, and mead pay 80 cent. per hectolitre.

These liquids are also liable to an additional duty of a *décime*, or two sous upon every franc paid as duty for the right of removing them from the wholesale warehouse, or even from that of the wine grower to the house of the purchaser.

Before the Revolution of 1830 a duty distinct from the octroi was levied on the entry of wine and spirituous liquors into communes the population of which amounted to 1,500 and upwards. Since that period, a law has passed exempting all communes whose population does not amount to 4,000, and fixing a tariff progressively rising from 4,000 to 5,000, and in proportion to the estimated wealth of the departments in which they are situated, which for this purpose are divided into four separate classes.

The duty on wine and liquors sold by retail was before the late Revolution 15 per cent. on the retail price, but in consequence of violent clamours on the part of *the sovereign people*, Ministers were compelled to reduce it to 10 per cent.

From the duty of fifteen per cent. on the sale of spiritous and fermented liquors by retail, a reduction was made in favour of the dealer, which was limited to three per cent. on the amount of the duty, if the wine or liquor sold by him were not of his own growth; but if it were, the reduction amounted to twenty-five per cent. on the sum of the retail duty.

Thus a professional dealer, if not a proprietor, selling one hundred measures of wine at one franc the measure, paid retail duty as follows:

Fifteen per cent. on one hundred francs. . .	15 fr.	
Deduct three per cent.	«	45 c.
Balance.	14	55
Add one decime per franc.	1	46
Total retail duty payable by the professional dealer.	16	1

But if the wine or liquor sold were grown upon the dealer's property, the one hundred measures sold at one franc per measure paid duty as follows:

Fifteen per cent. on one hundred francs .	15 fr.	» c.
Deduct twenty-five per cent.	3	75
Balance.	11	25
Add one decime per franc.	1	13
Total payable by the proprietor who retails wine of his own growth.	12	38

The premium thus given to a landed proprietor to induce him to keep a wine-shop continues the same in principle, but its effect is probably not now so great, in consequence of the reduction of the retail duty to which it applies.

The loss of revenue arising from the various reductions in the different branches of the duties on wine and liquors is since the revolution of 1830 represented by the balance between ninety-seven and sixty millions of francs.

A duty is also levied of 3 francs upon every *hectolitre* of strong beer, and 75 centimes, or 15 sous, on every *hectolitre* of small beer. Private individuals who brew for their own families are subjected to the same tax, and must comply with the same regulations as brewers by trade.

Retailers of liquors must take out a *licence*, which is quite distinct from the *patente*. The expense of a licence is in proportion to the population of the towns, and can never exceed twenty fr., nor be under six fr.

PLAYING CARDS.

The duty upon cards is 15 centimes for each pack intended for home use. In addition to this tax manufacturers are obliged to purchase from Government a variety of articles which are necessary for the manufacture of cards.

CARRIAGES.

Proprietors of public conveyances are required to pay one-tenth of the price of each place paid by a passenger, and one-tenth of the price received for the carriage of merchandise. One-third of the total amount of the places which a public carriage holds is exempted from this duty, in order to cover the losses sustained by empty places. Carriages let out by the day or by the month, as job-carriages, pay a duty according to the following tariff:—

Carriages on 2 wheels and holding 2 persons:			40 f. p. ann.
Do.	do.	4	70
Do.	do.	6	90
Do.	do.	8	120
Do.	do.	9	140
Do.	4 do.	4	80
Do.	do.	6	100
Do.	do.	8	130
Do.	do.	9	150

TOBACCO.

Tobacco is allowed to be cultivated only in the departments of the *Lower Rhine*, the *Mouths* of the *Rhône*, *Ille et Vilaine*, *Lot et Garonne*, *Nord*, *Pas de Calais*, *Var*, and the department of the *Lot*. The quantity of tobacco to be grown, and the price to be paid to the growers by Government to whom the sale is a monopoly are fixed by

the prefect of the department, who receives an order from the director of the indirect taxes stating the quantity of tobacco to be supplied by his department, and the prefect makes the allotment among the growers.

If the quality of this article when gathered is not approved of by Government, the whole is rejected, and becomes a loss to the grower, as he has often no means of disposing of it. No person can grow more tobacco than the quantity fixed upon by the prefect, nor can any farmer cultivate this plant for two successive years. All importations of foreign tobacco must be offered to Government; and if it be rejected, it must be reshipped at the risk and expense of the merchant.

No grower of tobacco is permitted to sell any part of his crop except to officers appointed by the Government, unless he intends it for exportation. The manufacture and sale of tobacco and snuff are entirely in the hands of Government, who sell it to persons appointed by themselves as retailers, whose profits are estimated to be 12 1/2 per cent.

SALT.

The salt taken from the salt-works and from the mines pays a duty of 3 sous per lb. Government has also salt-mines of its own, denominated *salines de l'Est*, situated in the eastern provinces, which are farmed by a company who pay upwards of 2 millions of francs a-year.

GUNPOWDER.

Government holds the monopoly of manufacturing as well as the sale of gunpowder.

CANALS, ETC.

A duty is levied by Government on canals, ferry boats, etc. the amount of which however varies in different places.

GOLD AND SILVER.

There is a duty of 20 francs upon every *hectogramme*

of gold worked into articles of luxury, and one franc upon the same quantity of silver worked into plate, etc. This duty is called *droit de garantie*. In addition to this duty, articles of pure gold or of silver gilt, called *vermeil*, pay three francs for the assay, and those of silver 80 centimes, or 16 sous. Small gold trinkets which are assayed by the touchstone pay nine centimes *per decagramme* (10 *grammes*) of gold.

ENREGISTREMENT, OR REGISTRY OF ACTS AND DEEDS.

This tax superseded the *droits de contrôle*, which were suppressed in 1790. The *enregistrement* extends to all acts and deeds, civil, judicial or extra-judicial. The duties received on registration are either fixed or proportional. The fixed taxes apply to all acts, whether judicial or extra-judicial, which contain no obligation, discharge, or penalties, nor any arrangement for the payment of debts, or any transfer or conveyance of property, or the use thereof, whether real or personal. The fixed duties vary from 50 centimes to 25 francs.

The proportional duty is levied on all bonds, discharges, penalties; on all acts which embrace arrangements for the liquidation of debts or bills of exchange, etc., on all conveyances of property or the use thereof, whether real or personal, between living parties or by testament.

The proportional duties are levied in proportion to the advantages and increase of fortune derived by acts, deeds, or testaments conveying property, whether real or personal, or the use thereof, and are calculated upon the value at which the acquisition is estimated. The proportional duty varies according to the stipulations in the acts of conveyance, from 20 centimes to seven francs per cent.

STAMPS (TIMBRE).

The stamp duty applies to all paper destined for public acts and deeds, receipts, bills of exchange, newspapers,

handbills, playbills, agreements, leases, magazines, small pamphlets, admission cards to public places, etc., etc.

This duty is of two kinds.

The one is a stamp duty according to the dimension of the paper which is stamped, and varies from five centimes a sheet to two francs. The other is on bonds, promissory notes, bills of exchange, etc., according to the sum specified, without regard to the dimensions of the paper.

The stamp duty on promissory notes, bills, and receipts is :—

On sums under 1000 fr.		35 c.
from 1000 fr. to 2000 fr. .	1 fr.	40 c.
from 2000 fr. to 3000 fr. .	2 fr.	10 c.

and an increase of 70 c. for every additional 1000 fr.

Every political print pays seven centimes per paper, but there is no duty on advertisements, and they are sent into the departments on payment of a centime per paper. The literary journals, and *petites affiches*, or papers for advertisements only, as well as all pamphlets, magazines, placards not exceeding 341 inches, handbills, and admission tickets to public places of amusement pay five centimes.

REGISTERING-OFFICE FOR MORTGAGES (HYPOTHÈQUE).

In every arrondissement in France there is an office for depositing mortgage-deeds. When a mortgage-deed is signed, the notary in whose presence it is executed sends a copy of it to the keeper of the mortgage-deeds in the district where the mortgage took place, and its nature and contents are inscribed in a registry kept for that purpose (1). The duty is one franc on every thousand francs of the amount of the mortgage.

(1) Such an office is greatly wanted in England, as it would prevent persons from becoming dupes to the chicanery of those selling property with heavy incumbrances.

LOTTERIES.

In France there are five lotteries, which are drawn successively at Paris, Lille, Lyons, Strasbourg, and Bordeaux, and from which Government derives a considerable revenue. The plan of the lottery is, however, essentially different from that which lately existed in England. In the French lotteries there are 90 numbers in the wheel, of which five are drawn; the drawings in each take place every ten days. The chances are denominated *extraits, ambes, ternes,* and *quaternes*. The *extrait* is a single number drawn from a series of numbers included in one ticket, for which single prize the holder receives 15 times the sum he risks; as if he play one franc on each, he receives 15 for the number drawn.

An *ambe* is two numbers drawn from any series of numbers contained in one ticket, and which yields 250 times the amount risked that two numbers will be drawn from those that have been selected.

A *terne* is three numbers drawn out of a certain series chosen in one ticket, and yields 5,500 times the sum risked on the chance of three numbers being drawn out of those selected.

The *quaterne* is four numbers being drawn out of those inserted in one ticket, and yields 75,000 times the amount risked on the chance of four numbers being drawn out of the numbers selected. But neither the *ambe, terne,* or *quaterne* is calculated if not played for.

EXAMPLE.

Chosen numbers, 2. 39. 41. 50. 87.

Here are 5 *extraits* at . .	3 fr.	each	15 fr.
10 *ambes* . . .	1 fr. 60 c.	—	16 fr.
10 *ternes* . . .	1 fr.	—	10 fr.
5 *quaternes* . .	60 c.	—	3 fr.
Thus the price of a ticket will be			44 fr.

One or more *extraits* being drawn out of the above five numbers gives the holder of the lottery-ticket a prize of . . . . . 45 fr. for each
Two *extraits* and one *ambe* give . 552 —
Three *extraits*, three *ambes*, and one *terne* . . . . . 6,931 —
Four *extraits*, six *ambes*, four *ternes*, and one *quaterne* . . . . . 69,772 —
Or five *quaternes* — total, supposing the above five numbers to be drawn from the wheel in one lottery . . 284,545 fr.

For the last twenty years Government has suppressed the *quinterne*, a term which signifies that the whole five numbers may be played for as coming out in one ticket, for which they would have an enormous sum to pay.

GAMING-HOUSES IN PARIS.

The public gaming-houses in Paris are farmed of Government by a company, who, previous to the Revolution of 1830, paid upwards of five millions and a half annually.

POST-OFFICE.

This of course is in the hands of Government, as is also the monopoly of post-horses.

OCTROI.

This is a tax levied upon articles of consumption on entering cities and large towns, one tenth of the amount of which enters into the Royal Treasury; the remainder is applied to the local expenses of the *communes*, chiefly for hospitals, poor-houses, etc.

CUSTOMS.

The duties on imports and exports form a considerable branch of public revenue, as will be seen when we give the budget of the Minister of Finance.

In the preceding statements of the revenues of Government we have not enumerated the local taxes (similar to county and parochial rates in England), raised in the departments, *arrondissements*, and *communes*, for their own local expenses, the nature of which we shall explain hereafter, and which are distinct from those levied by the Government.

PROGRESSIVE STATE OF THE FINANCES OF FRANCE FROM THE RESTORATION OF THE BOURBONS IN 1814 UNTIL THE YEAR 1830.

THE system adopted by the Imperial Government presented the *appearance* of order and exactness. The different Ministers were required to state to the Minister of Finance, at the end of the year, the sums they wanted to carry on the service of their respective departments for the ensuing year. From these statements the Minister of Finance framed his budget for the receipts and expenditure of the year. This system has been acted upon up to the period of the Revolution of 1830. The Minister of Finance presents his budget of receipts and expenditure for the ensuing year, which the Chamber of Deputies either agree to as presented, or propose a reduction. If in the following year the Minister apprehends a deficiency for that year, he applies for a supplementary credit. If, however, when the definitive budget is presented (which is done two years afterwards), it happens that the supplementary credit is not required, it is annulled. Therefore a budget is never considered as final until it has passed the Chamber a second time.

The estimates of the various Ministers in Napoleon's reign were never faithfully or accurately stated in the budget. The Ministers might put down or state what they pleased, provided they had the sanction of the Chief of the Government. The members of the Legislative Body were not allowed to speak, but voted silently. We have the authority of the *Duke de Gaëta*, the Imperial Finance Minister, in a work written by him about six years since, for saying:—"That on no occasion was a true and "faithful budget submitted to the Legislative Body during "the Government of Napoleon." The expenditure was always underrated, as is proved by the arrears which existed in the year 1814. The revenue on the other hand, was always overrated, as is proved by the taxes remaining

uncollected, and without any chance of being received or made available for the service of the State.

At the Restoration of the Bourbons the arrears, as stated to the Chambers by the King's Minister of Finance, Baron Louis, amounted to 1,308,156,500 francs. There was also a sum of 246,535,000 francs arising from securities given by public functionaries, Exchange brokers, etc., etc. This sum Government was not called upon to refund provided the interest was duly paid (1).

These sums, however, had been dissipated by the Imperial Government. Soon after the Restoration, when several of the departments of the empire no longer belonged to France, those persons who were no longer in office could claim their deposits; the greater part of them, however, preferred receiving merely the interest. This then still forms part of the floating debt.

It was necessary for the Bourbon Government to begin by paying off the arrears, some of which had existed since the year 1801. This liquidation was effected by issuing Government paper (similar to English Exchequer bills), called "*Reconnaissance de Liquidation*," bearing an interest of five per cent. at various periods; loans were also raised to pay off part of these arrears.

Count de Villele, on his accession to the Ministry of Finance, in 1821, finally liquidated the greater part of these arrears. By a law passed on the 17th August 1822, the arrears were definitively fixed, and the Minister was authorised by the Chambers to inscribe on the *grand livre* 20,409,292 fr. in 5 per cent rentes, in addition to the stock already created for that purpose, which closed the ac-

(1) The persons required by Government to give securities are:—Exchange brokers, attorneys, notaries, auctioneers, sheriffs' officers, the chief clerks or treasurers of finances and the courts of justice, receivers of taxes, etc. The amount deposited by each of the above persons is fixed in proportion to the extent of the population of the place where he exercises his profession, or fills his office. The interest paid on these deposits is at the rate of four per cent. per annum.

count of the arrears, amounting to 31,253,095 fr. of rentes. The whole of the arrears was thus liquidated, and which, according to M. de Villele, amounted to about 607 millions. A clause was however added, stipulating that if the above sum was not sufficient, an additional grant should be made for that purpose, not exceeding 11 million fr. But independent of the sum allotted for the payment of the arrears, there are at this time 73,687,151 fr. not liquidated, remaining part of the floating debt.

BUDGET OF 1814.

The first three months of this year, previous to the Restoration, which was in April, called for an immense expenditure, owing to the disastrous events of the period. At the same time, the very disasters, which had rendered such an increase unavoidable, had destroyed some of the resources of Government and weakened many others. When the country was overrun by victorious armies, great difficulties were of course experienced in the collection of the taxes; and while the demands on the Public Treasury continued undiminished, the curtailment of the French territory produced an immediate and material abridgment of the public resources.

Notwithstanding the aspect of public affairs, the estimated receipts of this year had been put down in the imperial budget, by a decree of the 4th January 1814, at 1,176,000,000 francs. The subsequent events, however, of this memorable year nullified the imperial budget, and produced in its place that presented to the Chamber in July 1814, by Baron Louis, the Minister of Louis XVIII. By the latter the receipts of 1814 were *estimated* at 520 million of francs, and the expenditure at 827,415,000 fr. Of this sum 331,275,000 fr. were applied to pay the expenses of the Imperial Government during the first quarter. The receipts and expenditure of the last three quarters were not definitively settled till 1817; as it required a long time to make up the accounts of 1814, owing to the numerous changes

arising from causes already stated. The actual expenditure of this year amounted only to 572,293,050 fr.; there was, however, a deficiency in the receipts of 115,954,954 fr. To provide for this deficit 12,238,332 fr. were to be paid out of the receipts of 1817, and 103,716,622 fr. were carried to the account of arrears, and were to be liquidated out of the stock purchased for that purpose.

The following are the items of the expenditure of 1814:

Civil List	15,510,000
Royal Family	4,000,000
Expenses of the Provisional Government	200,000
Senate, afterwards called Chamber of Peers	3,000,000
Legislative Body	3,571,472
Ministry of Justice	17,935,786
— Foreign Affairs	7,651,986
— Interior and Public Worship	70,192,000
— War	252,783,824
— Marine	47,558,415
— Police	848,957
— Finance	15,537,510
Interest on the public debt	95,987,100
Interest to public functionaries for their deposits	6,000,000
Expenses of negociations	6,516,000
Payments made to the Allied Governments	25,000,000
Total expenditure	572,293,050

1815.

The remarkable events of this year necessarily changed the budget of 1815, as presented to the Chamber of Deputies in the session of July 1814; but we shall nevertheless give the outline of it, to show the *blessings* brought upon France by the events of the *Hundred Days*. Baron Louis had estimated the probable receipts for 1815 as follows:—

	francs.
Direct taxes	340,000,000
Registering and domains	120,000,000
Indirect taxes	130,000,000
Miscellaneous	28,000,000
Total	618,000,000

The increase of income would not have arisen from any additional taxation, but from the return of affairs into their ordinary channels in consequence of the general peace. Far from having recourse to additional taxes they were to have been reduced 72,479,000 francs per annum; but the events of the Hundred Days entirely changed the financial arrangement of the year.

The expenditure of 1815 was estimated by the Minister at 547,700,000 f., leaving a surplus income of 70,300,000 f. However, by the definitive budget of 1815, the receipts were 798,590,859 francs, and the expenditure balanced the receipts. The budget, owing to the events of that year, was 250,890,000 francs more than was originally proposed. In the expenditure were included 180 millions for the maintenance and pay of the allied armies. The definitive budget for the year 1815 was as follows:—

EXPENDITURE.		RECEIPTS.	
Civil List and Royal Family.	30,700,000 fr.	Direct Taxes. . . .	320,000,000 f.
Chamber of Peers. .	1,203,500	Registry, Domains and Woods. . .	107,763,000
D°. of Deputies.	2,573,340	Indirect Taxes. . .	89,147,000
Ministry of Justice.	18,991,312	Lotteries.	7,857,000
D°. Foreign Affairs.	9,654,112	Posts.	8,830,000
D°. Interior. . .	53,557,000	Salt from Salines de l'Est.	2,400,000
D°. War.	328,293,134 *	Sundry Receipts. .	8,693,000
D°. Marine. . .	39,616,699	Proceeds arising from the Sinking Fund.	35,863,200
D°. Police. . . .	1,027,516	Proceeds from a Loan of 100 millions.	92,662,000
D°. Finance. . .	16,334,246	Customs and salt. .	70,615,000
Public Debt. . . .	98,640,000	TOTAL. . .	743,830,200
Interest to public functionaries for their deposits. .	8,000,000	Balance to be taken from the receipts of 1817.	54,760,659
Expenses of negotiations.	10,000,000		
Extraordinary charges to the Allies, as war contributions.	180,000,000		
TOTAL. . . .	798,590,859		798,590,859

1816.

From the budget of 1816 it appears that the expenses of the two Chambers were considerably diminished; as the members of the Lower House were no longer paid, though in Bonaparte's time they received 10,000 francs each. There is in this budget an item of 140 million francs, being one-fifth of the war contributions paid to the Allied Governments. The definitive budget for the year was as follows:—

Receipts, 895,577,205 francs. The expenditure exceeded the receipts by 18 million francs. This deficiency was provided for by taking from the receipts of 1817 the sum of 23,535,859, which left a surplus of 5,527,054 fr.

* The largeness of this sum, which exceeded that of the preceding year, is easily to be accounted for as the Bourbon Government had to pay Napoleon's army during the hundred days.

1817.

The definitive budget of this year was as follows :—

Receipts, 1,036,810,583 francs, part of which sum arose from a loan of 352,989,000 fr., for which 30,670,000 fr. rentes were given, towards paying off arrears. This year was remarkable for a great scarcity of grain in France. Bread, which on an average is sold at three sous and a-half a lb., rose to half a franc; in consequence of which the Minister of the Interior, M. De Cazes, purchased corn in foreign markets, which was sold by Government at the average price of ordinary years; from which circumstance an unexpected increase in the expenditure of the year was incurred of nearly 28 millions francs. But it must also be remembered that part of the deficiencies in the budgets of 1814, 1815, and 1816, were taken from the receipts of 1817, as we have before observed, which amounted to more than 90 millions and a half. The expenditure of this year was equal to the receipts. In the former were included an additional grant of 20 million francs to the sinking fund; a second fifth of the war contributions, amounting to 140 million francs; 173 million francs for the army of occupation; and 27,865,000 francs taken from the ordinary receipts to discharge part of the arrears.

1818.

This year occasioned a heavy budget, in consequence of a loan having been raised for the purpose of paying off the balance due to the Allies, who, by virtue of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, consented to an evacuation, and which took place at the close of that year. The expenditure amounted to 1,414,433,736 francs, which made an increase of nearly 400 million francs compared with that of the preceding year. To meet these exigencies the Minister was authorised to raise a further loan of 220,510,718 francs, for which he gave 16 million francs of rentes.

France had thus to pay to the Allies this year :—

	francs.
For the third of the war contribution . .	140,000,000
Army of occupation	141,940,530
Additional pay to the allied troops . .	26,666,667
Finally, for the last two fifths of the war contribution	265,000,000
A special payment to England, by virtue of a convention, dated 1st Sept. 1817, as an indemnity to British subjects for loss of property in France	2,200,000
Total paid, in 1818, to the Foreign Governments.	575,807,197

This was an enormous sum for France to pay in one year, which, however, was effected partly by loan, and partly from her ordinary resources. It has been estimated that the return of Napoleon from the island of Elba cost France four thousand million francs, including the local expenses incurred by the allied armies, placed in cantonments throughout the Kingdom. The city of Paris alone was obliged to raise a loan of 33 million francs to defray expenses incurred by the presence of the foreign armies from 1815 to 1818. This sum, nevertheless, did not cover all the expenses.

The permanent debt was consequently increased upwards of 90 million francs per annum.

	francs.
The expenses of the year 1818 were . .	1,414,433,736
The receipts	1,383,110,288
Leaving a deficiency to be taken from the receipts of 1819 of	31,323,448

We have always been of opinion that the expenses incurred in consequence of Napoleon's return from Elba, ought never to have been saddled upon France, as she was not to be blamed for the blunder of the Allies (England being always excepted, not having been a party to

the treaty of Fontainebleau), of sending the ex-Emperor to an island within little more than gun-shot of France. To all these sacrifices we must not omit to add the removal of the *chefs-d'œuvre* of the fine arts from the Royal Museum. We confess we have always been at a loss to know upon what principle of justice these works of art were taken from France under the Government of Louis XVIII, by those very Allies who assisted him in the recovery of his throne. The French monarch had certainly more right to retain the celebrated Venetian Horses than the Emperor of Austria had to keep possession of the city of Venice itself.

1819.

The budget of this year was much more flattering than that of the former, as France was freed from the burden of foreign armies.

No additional taxes were raised, nor were any loans resorted to.

	francs.
The receipts were	868,312,572
The expenditure	863,853,109
Surplus.	4,459,463

This surplus was carried over to the budget of 1821. But, besides the above sum, there had been 31,323,448 fr. deducted in the first place from the receipts of 1819 to make up the deficiency in the preceding year; which, in fact, would make the surplus of receipts for 1819 amount to near 36 million francs.

This proves that France was able to bear the enormous charges imposed upon her by the Allied Powers.

1820.

The budget of this year presented nothing remarkable, except that it proved the progressive prosperity of the country.

	francs.
The receipts were	913,313,872
The expenditure	875,342,252
The surplus was	37,971,620

1821.

The budget of this year had been presented to the Chambers by Count Roy, the Minister of Finance, but was not definitively passed till 1823, when M. de Villèle had succeeded him in the finance department.

	francs.
The receipts were estimated by M. Roy at	888,021,745
The expenditure at	882,327,374
The surplus	5,694,371

But by the definitive budget presented by M. de Villèle—

The receipts were	915,591,435
The expenditure	882,321,254
Surplus receipts carried to the budget of 1823	33,270,181

1822.

The budget of this year was presented to the Chamber by M. Roy two months previously to his retiring from the ministry of Finance. His successor came into office while the budget was still under discussion, and showed the most liberal feeling, as he supported the budget of his predecessor.

	francs.
M. Roy estimated the receipts at . . .	890,000,033
And the expenditure at	889,541,340
Surplus	458,693

M. DE VILLÈLE'S ADMINISTRATION.

In January 1822, this very distinguished financier came into office, and although he certainly found the Treasury in a flourishing state, yet it is generally acknowledged that he introduced into that department the most perfect order, the strictest economy, as well as the greatest regularity, in whatever related to the public accounts. It has been already stated, that, during the discussion of the budget for 1822, M. de Villèle came into office. He made, however, some alterations in the proposed budget, as presented by his predecessor.

	francs.
He estimated the receipts at	902,000,033
And the expenditure at	901,724,755
Which would create a surplus of only .	275,278

The definitive budget of this year was, however, highly flattering to M. de Villèle; and although upwards of 40 millions arose from the surplus of preceding budgets, still the statement presented to the Chamber of Deputies was encouraging in the extreme; it was as follows:—

Receipts.	991,892,802 francs.
Expenditure.	949,174,982
Surplus.	42,717,820

Which was carried to the years 1824 and 1825. It must, however, be remembered that it was in this year that M. de Villèle created stock to the amount of 20 millions of rentes to pay off the remainder of the arrears of debts of the Imperial Government, all but 73 million of francs.

1823.

It was in the session of 1822 that M. de Villèle presented his first budget for the ensuing year, in which he estimated

The receipts at.	915,220,900 francs.
And the expenditure.	906,565,620
Surplus.	8,655,380

In the session of 1823 the Minister was obliged to ask for an additional credit for that year, in consequence of the approaching war with Spain. A loan of 100 millions to be paid for in rentes was voted by the Chambers. The army was augmented, and an advance made of 11 millions to the Spanish Government, but there was no increase of taxes. In consequence of the above loan, 4 millions per annum were added to the national debt. In 1825 the definitive budget of 1823, as presented to the Chambers, stood thus: —

Receipts.	1,123,456,391 francs.
Expenditure.	1,118,025,162
Surplus.	5,431,229

This sum was carried over to the budget of 1825. The extraordinary receipts to make up the difference between the proposed and the definitive budget, were 76,764,498 fr. which consisted of the balances from former votes of credit and the loan of 100 millions, which (taken at 89 fr. 55 c.) produced 71,640,000 francs.

Six millions were also this year received by Government, arising from the profits of interest on deposits in the *Caisse des Consignations*.

The expenses of the war department, which in 1822 were only 192,190,647 francs, amounted in 1823 to 343,364,822 francs. The expenses of the navy in 1822 increased from 59,945,428 fr. to 73,980,596 fr. in consequence of the Spanish war. The other items in the receipts and expenditure experienced no alteration.

1824.

The budget of this year was much lighter than the

preceding, as France was again at peace. By the definitive budget,

The receipts were	994,971,962 francs.
The expenditure.	986,073,842
Surplus.	8,898,120

This was carried over to the budget of 1826. The expenses of the army were this year only 217,963,745 fr. and the charges of the naval department 10 millions less than the preceding year.

PROPOSED REDUCTION OF THE INTEREST OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.

We think it proper in this place to speak of the celebrated project of M. de Villèle to reduce the interest of the national debt. He failed, however, in his first attempt, as his plan was then very imperfectly understood. The discussion of the project was opened on the 5th April 1824 by M. de Villèle himself, in which he explained the basis of his plan; which was, to calculate the existing capital (then bearing interest at 5 per cent.) at par, and pay off the public creditor at that rate; that is, 100 fr. cash for every 100 francs stock; or to convert the entire capital into 3 per cent. stock, at the rate of 75 francs *cash* for 100 fr. *stock* at 3 per cent. One hundred francs would in that case represent 133 fr. 33 c. This was increasing the nominal capital *one third*, but for which he proposed paying the stockholder 3 per cent.; consequently the loss to the capitalist would be only 1 per cent., as by receiving 3 per cent. on his capital thus increased one third, he would in fact receive 4 per cent. for his money, and the Government would actually have been a gainer of *one fifth* upon the whole amount of interest paid on the national debt so converted, which was to have been 2,800 millions of francs. To effect this important measure, M. de Villèle had entered into an engagement with a company of bankers, who were to provide the funds re-

quired for paying those who might object to have their stock converted into the 3 per cents. According to the agreement between the Minister and the bankers, 370 millions of francs were to have been ready by the 1st of October 1824 to meet the demands of those who might call for their capital. The total amount of the interest, at 5 per cent., on the national debt, was 197,014,892 francs, which was divided as follows :—

Holders of stock.	Amount of stock.	Total.
10,000 from	10 to 50 fr. .	310,000 fr.
36,000 —	50 — 99 . .	2,750,000
76,000 —	100 — 1,000 . .	30,600,000
15,000 —	1,000 — 4,999. . .	42,500,000
5,000 —	5,000 — 9,999 . .	27,290,000
10,000 of	10,000 fr. and upwards	36,550,000
152,000		140,000,000 fr.

Which was the sum intended to be converted into the 3 per cents.

We find from the above statements, that 152,000 individuals held a principal to the amount of 2,800,000,000 f. bearing interest at 5 francs for every 100 francs, in lieu of which it was intended by the Minister to pay them at the rate of 3 francs for every nominal 75 francs. The amount of the principal thus converted into 3 per cent. stock would have left 57 millions unconverted, which, as it belonged to charities and other corporate bodies, it was not the intention of the Minister to have meddled with, at least at that time. This plan was opposed in the Chamber of Deputies on the ground — "That the paying off "the capital of the State creditors was a breach of justice "and public faith."

The Minister, however, maintained, "That the prin- "ciple had always been acknowledged and acted upon "under the *ancien régime*, and he was certain, that al- "though the nominal capital of the national debt might "be increased, yet the Government would not ultimately "be a loser; but on the contrary, that the State would "profit by the reduction of 28 millions of interest." This is

proved to be correct by the following statement; 140 millions of interest represented two milliards 800 millions capital at five per cent., which being converted into three per cents., at 75 francs principal for 100 francs stock, would increase the nominal amount of capital to three milliards 734 millions at three per cent., but which would require 112 millions of interest only, leaving a gain to the State, as before observed, of *twenty-eight millions annually*.

After a very protracted and tedious discussion in the Chamber of Deputies, in the course of which more personal animosity against the Minister was displayed than either patriotism or knowledge of financial affairs, the measure was carried by a majority of 238 against 145. The project was debated with equal warmth, and apparently as little knowledge of the question, in the Chamber of Peers, and rejected by a majority of 34.

For our part we must say, that the Minister's plan appeared to us at the time perfectly just, for it was evident that it was calculated to relieve the State from an enormous burden.

Had such a plan been proposed in England, where affairs of finance are well understood, it would have rendered any Minister highly popular: we need only refer to the effect of reducing the 5 per cents. to 4 in England.

In the session of 1825, however, M. de Villèle again brought forward his plan, with some modifications. The only difference was, that the holders of 5 per cents. had the option to retain their stock or convert it into the 3 per cents. at 75, which would, as before explained, give 4 per cent. This measure was carried by a large majority in both Chambers.

The 5th of August 1825 was the day fixed for converting the stock, and an amount which yielded 30,574,116 fr. interest was converted into the 3 per cents., by which operation it produced only 24,459,035 fr., making an annual saving to the State of six millions, and which, by a royal ordonnance of the 23d September 1825, was immediately applied to the reduction of the land-tax for the ensuing

year. This, we presume, is sufficient evidence of the immense advantage the country would have derived had not the Minister been thwarted in his original plan.

1825.

The budget of this year was closed as follows :—

The receipts	985,673,751 fr.
The expenditure	981,972,609
Surplus	3,701,142

Of this :—

384,907 francs were carried to the bugdet of 1826, and 3,316,235 francs to that of 1827.

INDEMNITY TO THE EMIGRANTS.

This measure was at length brought forward by M. de Villèle in the Chamber of Deputies in the session of 1825. For ten years this important question hung suspended over France.

The victims of the Revolution, most of whom had been living in exile, very naturally rejoiced at the Restoration of the Bourbons, in the hope that they also should be restored to their alienated property. It struck the enlightened mind of the Royal Legislator Louis XVIII, that if some sort of social reparation was generously offered by the present generation to the victims of the preceding one, it would at once calm the irritation of the sufferers by the Revolution, and would at the same time be the means of removing all alarm from the minds of the purchasers of national property, who were repeatedly told by the enemies of Government that some measure would sooner or later be taken to dispossess them of their property, although guaranteed by the Charter. It was for the loss of landed property only, and not of stock or moveables, that this indemnity was to be granted; nor was there any question about indemnifying the clergy (whose domains had also been confiscated), as they now received salaries from Government—and miserable pittances they are, with the exception of the bishops and archbishops.

The amount proposed by the Minister to indemnify the emigrants, and which was granted by the Legislature, was 1,000 million of francs in the 3 per cents. stock at 75 fr., which made 30 millions of stock to be funded in five years at six millions per annum, from the time the law passed in 1825. The measure, however, had to encounter the most violent opposition in the Chambers. The friends of the Revolution contended that many of the emigrants were not entitled to any indemnity; such, for instance, as had served in the French army during every stage of the Revolution, and such as had held civil employment under Napoleon's Government. Even the *personnel* of the Imperial police department was *graced* with several of the emigrant nobility. It was also maintained, that many of the emigrants had fled at a time when their presence might have saved the Monarch and the Throne.

On the other hand it was contended, that if the Government gave an indemnity, it should be given, not to the emigrants whose property ought to be restored, but to the purchasers of that property, many of whom would have been satisfied, especially when it was considered that in the years 1793 and 1794 emigrant property was sold for a mere trifle. We could state many instances of this kind. — The magnificent hotel of M. de Clermont-Tonnerre, in the rue Vaugirard at Paris, was purchased in the year 1794 by the celebrated American M. Joel Barlow, for 500 louis d'or in specie (a louis d'or at that time was worth 35,000 f. in assignats), and which hotel Mr. Barlow in 1802 refused to sell for 200,000 francs in specie. The palace of the Great Trianon, at Versailles, was sold for 300 louis d'or in specie; it was purchased by a *restaurateur;* but the sale, as in many other cases, was annulled by the Directory, so that it again became Government property.

The chief difficulty on the part of Government in settling the indemnity to the emigrants was, how to regulate the exact value of the property that had been sold. The taxes paid at present to the Government arising out of

that property could not be taken as a criterion, as the present value was very different from the value at the time of the sale. The improved system of cultivation had greatly increased the value of lands; the property had in most cases been divided and subdivided; houses had been demolished, and others had been erected in their stead; in fact the whole had undergone a material change since the Revolution.

It was in 1793 that the property of many of the emigrants was first exposed to public sale, and these sales continued for nearly ten years. In the commencement the law which ordered the sale of landed emigrant property did not prescribe that any inquiry should be made into the amount of the revenue produced from it in 1790 as the ground of valuation; it was simply divided into lots, and an arbitrary estimate of each was made, when it was sold to the first bidder of the sum fixed upon.

On the 12th *prairial* in the year III(1794) of the Republic, a law however passed, that all emigrant property should in future be estimated according to the value of the revenue it produced in 1790. The sales made by the first law amounted in number to 370,617, which greatly exceeds the number of those made by the second law. This great number arose from the multiplicity of petty lots into which an estate was divided.*

These two kinds of sales form in fact two distinct species:—

1. The indemnity allowed to those whose properties were sold previously to the law of the 12th *prairial*, is calculated on the amount produced by the sales which had then taken place.

2. The indemnity granted to those whose property was sold under the new law is calculated at 18 times the revenue, as confirmed by the *procès verbaux*. This was adopted as the basis of the indemnity to the emigrants.

	francs.
Total amount produced by the first 370,617 sales	692,407,600
Total amount produced by the second 81,455 sales	605,352,992
Total	1,297,760,592
From this must be deducted the debts on the estates sold, which the then existing Government paid, amounting to . .	309,940,645
The capital therefore remaining to be paid for the indemnity, and which was provided for, as before stated, amounted to (1)	987,819,947

1826.

The receipts of this year were	987,620,580
The expenditure	976,948,919
Surplus	10,671,661

1827.

This year, as will be seen in the progressive table of the public revenues, presented a considerable falling off in every branch of the receipts. The budget was as follows:—

	francs.
Receipts	957,431,769
Expenditure	989,448,052
Leaving the enormous deficit, to be afterwards provided for, of	32,016,283

1828.

This budget was the last that was presented by M. de Villèle previous to his quitting office. He estimated

The receipts at	946,483,698
The expenditure at	951,631,890
Leaving a presumed deficit of	5,148,192

(1) At the period of the revolution of 1830, a balance of three millions of rentes was still in the hands of the late government, which the revolutionary government of 1830, instead of appropriating to its destined purpose, *carried to the account of the state!!*

But when the accounts of that year were made up, instead of there being a deficit, there was, on the contrary, a surplus in the receipts of 4,758,000 francs.

CHANGE OF ADMINISTRATION.

In January 1828, M. Roy succeeded M. de Villèle as Minister of Finance. We have already declared it to be our firm intention to abstain as much as possible in this work from every expression of political feeling, otherwise we might write a long chapter on the conduct of those who characterised the administration of M. de Villèle as "*déplorable.*" The term "*déplorable*" might with more propriety be applied to the new Chamber of 1828, which counted among its members a great number of those who supported the measures of Napoleon "through thick and thin." Of the liberal members, however, such as Messrs. Royer Collard, Benjamin Constant, Laffitte, Casimir Périer, La Fayette, Kératry, the brothers Dupin, Delaborde, and a few others, we must in obedience to truth say, that they never were the supporters of the measures of the Imperial Government. But the country had to congratulate itself in counting among its new Ministers a man remarkable for his great talents and sound integrity, namely, *M. de Martignac, Minister of the Interior.* In praising him I do not mean to detract from the merits of his predecessor M. de Corbière, with whom I had long been intimately acquainted, and who is a highly talented person, and, what is more, *an honest man*—"the noblest work of God!"

Soon after his accession to the office, M. Roy presented his budget for the year 1829. In consequence of the positive deficiency of 1827 and presumed deficit of 1828, M. Roy made his estimates for this year as follows:—

1829.

	francs.
Receipts	986,156,821
Expenditure	974,184,361
Surplus.	11,972,460

The Minister, not being sure of realising these receipts, and being exposed to extraordinary expenses by the fitting out of the expedition to Greece, as well as by the additional ships employed in the blockade of Algiers, was authorised by the Legislature to raise a loan of 80 million francs in the 4 per cent. stock. But when the accounts of this year were made up in 1830, previous to the Revolution, there appeared an increase in the revenue of 3,559,658 fr., besides balances of departmental grants which were not expended, making with the preceding sum 6,653,409 fr. To this must be added the sum of 4,768,000 francs taken from the surplus of the budget of 1828, and 29,487,323 fr. forming part of the loan of 80 million francs (the remainder having been carried over to the budget of 1830), so that the total receipts were . . 1,030,463,529 fr.
and the expenditure 1,014,914,432

Surplus . . . . 15,549,097 fr.

This surplus was carried to the budget of 1830. In the expenditure is included an additional annual grant of 800,000 francs to the sinking fund.

Not having given a regular budget since the early period of the Restoration, we shall subjoin the proposed general budget of 1829, presented to the Chamber by the Minister of Finance, in which the reader has a specimen of the mode of making out the estimates.

In the month of August 1829, the administration of which Prince de Polignac was the head succeeded that of which M. de Martignac was the most efficient member. The financial department was filled by M. de Chabrol, who was prevented from presenting his budget by the violent opposition which the new Ministry met with in the Chamber of Deputies. He was not hindered, however, from giving to the public, in the shape of "a Report to the King," a very valuable work on the finances, from the Restoration till he quitted office in May 1830.

On the 26th of July 1830, the royal ordonnances were promulgated. The reader knows the result.

THE NATIONAL DEBT (1).

PREVIOUS to the Revolution of 1789, the interest of the permanent debt amounted, as has been seen, to 207 million francs. On the 1st of August 1793, as appears from official documents, it amounted to 127,803,000 francs. In 1798 it had been increased to 174,000,000 francs, two thirds of which the Executive Directory expunged, and by this operation reduced the interest of the debt, thence called *tiers consolidés*, to 60 million francs.

	francs.
At the Restoration of 1814 the interest of the debt was	64,197,432
Stock created for the payment of arrears in 1814 and 1816, at the rate of 58 fr. . .	8,777,629
Ditto, created in 1814, to discharge the debts of Louis XVIII contracted in foreign countries	1,499,657
Ditto, to pay the Allied Governments, by virtue of a treaty concluded in 1815, and fulfilled in 1818, taken at 57 fr. . . .	43,244,187
Ditto, placed at the disposal of Government for various purposes, granted by the Legislature principally for the payment of the Allies, taken at 66 1/2 fr.	52,600,000
Ditto, towards the payment of the arrears of the debt of the Imperial Government, taken at 87 fr.	20,409,292
Ditto, for the Legion of Honour	240,000
Ditto, to pay off some deposits made by public functionaries	2,654
Ditto, for the extraordinary expenditure arising out of the war with Spain in 1823, taken at 89 fr.	4,000,000
Total 5 per cent. stock in May 1825 . .	194,970,851

(1) A very intelligent gentleman, who holds a high situation in the

In 1825, on the creation of the new 3 per cent stock, the capital invested in the five per cent stock, amounting to 611,482,320, or 30,574,116 fr. in rentes, was converted into the three per cent. stock, making a capital of 815,301,166 fr., 065 or, 24,459,035 fr. rentes.

A new 4 1/2 per cent. stock was also created, and arose from the conversion of a portion of the fives. The sum converted was 1,149,840 fr. and yielded in the new four and a half 1,029,237 fr. rentes.

To the 3 per cent. stock was to have been added the amount of the indemnity to the emigrants, amounting to a milliard, which was to be paid in equal instalments of six millions of rentes per annum, commencing in 1826, and ending in 1830. This sum would have added thirty millions of rentes to the 3 per cents.; but the sinking fund redeemed and cancelled 16,003,286 fr. of rentes of it.

At the commencement of the year 1830 the public debt stood thus:—

5 per cent. rentes	163,857,978 fr.
3 per cent.	39,810,144
4 1/2 per cent.	1,029,237
4 per cent.	3,134,950
Total . . .	207,831,409 fr.

FLOATING OR UNFUNDED DEBT.

Part of the floating debt previous to the Revolution of 1830 consisted of deposits made by public functionaries in those departments separated from France in 1814:

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finance department, showed me not long since a very ingenious work in MS. written by himself, giving an account of the origin and progress of the Public Debt of France. It commenced in the reign of Francis I, and the annual interest was then about 60,000 fr. per annum. The extravagant reigns of Louis XIV and XV increased the interest of the debt to nearly 10,000,000 fr.

they are paid in *bons royaux*, and are annually renewed.

The debt is	73,687,000
Debt due from the Spanish government since 1823, for which the French government issued Treasury bills specially for that purpose; but the Spanish government in 1829 agreed to pay their debt in Spanish rentes, at the rate of 2 million of francs annually, consequently the French government will eventually be paid; for the present, however, the Spanish debt stands as part of the floating debt, and amounts to	54,727,000
Deficit of the year 1827	32,016,000
Total	160,430,000

The annual interest on the above is set down at 6,000,006.

There are also *bons royaux* in circulation to carry on the business of Government till the taxes are collected, but these vary according to the wants of the Treasury.

It is not our intention, as we have already observed, to extend this work beyond the Revolution of 1830; but we nevertheless think it proper to take a glance at the state of the finances, and to notice the increase of the consolidated and unfunded debt from that period till the end of the year 1831.

The interest of 5 per cent. stock, in consequence of fresh loans, is now 176,160,062 fr.; being an increase of annual interest of 12,392,858 fr.

The 3 per cents. have been reduced three millions annually, in consequence of that sum having been still in the hands of Government at the period of the Revolution which was to pay off the indemnity to the émigrants, and which M. Laffitte, when Minister of Finance, thought proper to appropriate to the service of the State. Con-

sequently not only did the emigrants loste the remainder of the indemnity, but many persons who advanced them money on their claims were sufferers by this revolutionary measure.

In consequence of extraordinary votes of credit, to relieve the distresses of trade occasioned by the Revolution, and for other purposes, *bons royaux* were issued to the amount of 300 millions, the interest of which, according to the budget of 1832, amounted to 15 millions. The interest of the whole of the floating debt, up to January 1832 is 24 millions, 6 of which, as we have already shown, appertains to the debts of the former Government and to those contracted anterior to 1814.

According to recent official statements,	francs.
The deficit of the year 1830 was . .	74,000,000
Budget 1831.	
Expenses 1,233,881,000	
Receipts 944,429,000	
Deficit	289,452,000
Budget 1832.	
Expenses. 1,113,500,000	
Presumed Receipts . 978,586,000	
Deficit	134,914,000
Total deficit which now constitutes the floating debt.	498,366,000

Well might M. Laffitte say, "In France every body "suffers; France is in a state of inaction; France finds "security nowhere." Such was the language of a man in the Chamber of Deputies on the 18th of January 1832—a man who had been Prime Minister since the Revolution, and had contributed not a little to produce it.

THE SINKING FUND,

CAISSE D'AMORTISSEMENT,

AND

CAISSE DES DÉPOTS ET CONSIGNATIONS.

The sinking fund had been established under the Government of Napoleon, partially to pay off the national debt, which was not at that era of great magnitude.

Many laws were passed during the Imperial Government conferring grants on this fund; but they were seldom carried into execution. At that period the *Caisse des Consignations* formed a part of the establishment of the Sinking Fund, and the monies there deposited were applied to the general expenses of the State.

On the restoration of the Bourbons, the Sinking Fund possessed stock the interest of which amounted to about three millions and a half; but, before any thing was settled by the new Government, Napoleon returned to France and frustrated all its plans; he seized the sums deposited in the Sinking Fund and in the *Caisse des Consignations*.

The latter establishment receives deposits of sums of various descriptions, such as arise from law-suits, when the money sued for is deposited at this office until the suit is decided. It has also the agency of the Legion of Honour, of all the canal companies, and the superannuated fund. Monies arising from seizures are also deposited here. It has agents in every department of France. Those who make deposits are allowed 3 per cent. interest. The profits are for the benefit of Government. They are not, however, of great magnitude, as we find by the budgets since the Restoration that six millions of francs only have been received from it by the Treasury.

In the session of 1816, the Minister of Finance proposed to liquidate all the accounts of the old Sinking Fund, with those of the *Caisse des Consignations*, and to separate the two offices from each other. On the motion of M. de Cor-

bière, 20 millions were allotted from the annual receipts and applied to the Sinking Fund. In 1817 the grant was extended to 40 millions, and in 1830 a further annual augmentation of 800,000 fr.

The management of the Sinking Fund is confided to six persons, viz :—

1. The President, a Peer of France, appointed by the King from a list of three persons presented to him, and ballotted for by the Chamber of Peers.

2. Two members of the Chambers of Deputies, also chosen by the King out of six persons presented by that Chamber.

3. A member of the *Cour des Comptes*, nominated by the King.

4. The Governor of the Bank of France ; and,

5. The President of the Chamber of Commerce at Paris ; the three last being all originally named by the King.

These persons are appointed for three years only. To the Sinking Fund are also attached a General Director, a Deputy Director, and a Cashier.

Stock purchased by this fund can on no consideration be either sold or transferred, as it is stamped in the body of the inscription or certificate "*not transferable.*"

According to the original law, nothing could be cancelled by the Sinking Fund till the 22d of June 1830. But, by a subsequent law of the 1st of May 1825, the Sinking Fund was permitted to cancel only what it acquired either by purchases or by grants from June 1825 till June 1830.

By the official report of the commissioners of the Sinking Fund, dated 31st December 1831, the gross receipts since its creation up to that period amounted to :—

In annual grants from the Treasury .	1,037,122,531 fr.
From woods and forests	83,465,338
	1,120,587,869 fr.

Up to December 1831, the Sinking Fund had cancelled in rentes to the amount of—

In the 3 per cents.,	16,000,000 fr.,	which cost	387,139,837 fr.
— 4 per cents.	9,740	—	242,660
— 4 and a half	7,068	—	156,007
Total cancelled			387,538,504

The above fund held in rentes in January 1832 :—

In the 5 per cents.,	41,095,056 fr.,	which cost	667,694,036 fr.
— 3 per cents.	2,776,874	—	61,714,397
— 4 and a half	28,667	—	533,440
— 4 per cents.	152,408	—	3,061,451
Total in rentes .	44,053,005 fr.		1,120,541,828 fr.

The balance of 46,000 francs is to pay the current expenses of this establishment for the half year.

When we consider that the debt of France, which amounted in 1830 to about 4,000 millions of francs, is supported by such a sinking fund, we see some ground for the observation of M. de Villèle, in the Chamber of Deputies in 1823, "that the prosperous state of the Sinking Fund was well calculated to secure the State from any failure in its engagements."

The Revolution of 1830 will naturally produce changes, not only in the financial but in all other systems. The Sinking Fund has already been attacked by a party in the Chamber of Deputies, by endeavouring to stop the annual grant of 40,800,000 francs. This attempt has failed for the present; but when the Government goes on borrowing—when there is an enormous deficiency in the receipts—a floating debt amounting to 500 millions—unless the aspect of affairs improve, and that speedily, of which there is very little chance,—we need "no ghost to tell us" that there will soon be in France more than ONE SINKING FUND!

From the preceding statements the reader will be enabled to judge of the prosperity of France previous to the Revolution of 1830, and of its solid system of finance.

The amount of the public revenues, as we have shown, is about 1,000 million of francs, independent of which the communes raise money for their local expenses.

We shall subjoin the Minister of the Interior's budget, and also that of the Prefect of the city of Paris considered as a *commune*, which will serve as a specimen of those of the other *communes*. These budgets will show what sums are strictly departmental, as being comprehended in the general expenditure of the State, and those which are levied by the *communes*, independent of the general revenue, and applied to their own local expenses. The latter are analogous to the parochial and county rates in England.

The revenues of the *communes*, independent of the *centimes communaux*, arise principally from *octrois*. These amount in all France to about 40 millions of francs, of which only one tenth is paid into the Royal Treasury. In Paris and other large cities an *extra octroi* is levied in lieu of the *contribution personnelle*. The reader will perhaps consider the amount of the *octrois* as small, when it is remembered that the metropolis alone pays 20 millions. The *communes* are obliged to maintain their poor, repair cross-roads, and assist those hospitals that have not sufficient funds of their own. The Minister of the Interior adds a supplementary grant of 1,300,000 francs for these and similar purposes.

Upon a strict calculation founded on official information, it is ascertained that, besides the 1,000 millions of public revenue, 200 millions are raised annually by the *communes*, making the whole revenue amount to 1,200 millions of francs arising from taxation, which, if equally levied on a population of 33 millions of souls, would be at the rate of 37 francs a-head.

Since the Revolution of 1830 the government, as well as the local or parochial taxes, have been augmented. The former consist: 1. In an additional duty on the land tax of 30 centimes on every franc. 2. The *taxe personnelle*, which formerly was not levied in towns where there were *octrois*, is now imposed on every tenant of unfurnished apartments in towns where there are *octrois*. In Paris the rate is one fourth per cent. on the rent; but the law is on the same principle as the *taxe mobilière*; no one is taxed higher than on a rent of 2,500 francs per annum.

Loans in almost every *commune*, for their local expenses, have also been raised with the sanction of the Legislature. The city of Paris has raised a loan of 55 millions, bearing an interest of 5 per cent., to the payment of which the inhabitants of the "Good City of Paris" must contribute, cheerfully no doubt, for if people want to enjoy the luxuries of Revolutions they willingly pay for them. The heroic patriots of the "Three Glorious days of July 1830" have cost Paris more than the Cossacks did in 1815, as that city raised a loan then of only 33 millions, to defray the expenses of the military occupation of the Allies; whereas now the loan is 55 millions!

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PROGRESSIVE STATE OF THE PUBLIC REVENUES OF FRANCE,

TABLE I. COMMENCING 1st JANUARY 1816, AND ENDING 31st DECEMBER 1829.

DATES.	LAND TAX.	MOBILIERE AND PERSONAL TAX.	DOOR AND WINDOW TAX.	PATENTS.	TOTAL.
1816	291,161,415 fr.	49,140,291 fr.	21,433,494 fr.	40,453,618 fr.	402,188,818 fr.
1817	294,168,898	61,198,481	26,912,075	20,677,871	402,957,325
1818	295,351,554	46,420,776	27,105,675	21,511,837	390,419,842
1819	279,303,916	46,027,905	21,589,928	21,565,052	368,486,801
1820	279,980,281	43,805,166	21,519,350	21,509,027	368,813,824
1821	265,374,967	46,050,917	21,457,612	21,671,069	354,654,565
1822	254,402,833	45,805,934	21,451,067	22,366,273	344,026,107
1823	252,783,754	45,520,394	21,414,103	23,539,880	343,285,131
1824	253,174,300	45,918,824	21,297,355	23,880,335	344,300,814
1825	254,455,826	46,912,171	21,320,127	24,889,995	346,658,419
1826	249,912,803	45,105,846	20,540,365	25,628,701	341,187,717
1827	241,130,965	40,747,947	15,580,427	26,055,142	323,292,481
1828	242,151,789	41,027,559	15,446,725	26,464,872	325,090,943
1829	243,793,000	40,987,793	15,376,415	26,804,934	326,962,142

Although from the above table there appears to have been a falling off in the receipts from 1816 to 1826, yet this difference arose not from any deficiency in the revenue, but from a very considerable reduction of taxes.

TABLE II.

REGISTERING, STAMPS AND DOMAINS.

DATES.	REGISTERING.	STAMPS.	FEES in law-courts.	DUTY on Mortgages.	FINES of all kinds.	PASSPORTS and Shooting Licenses.	SPECIAL DUTY upon Journals.	PER CENTAGE on the Salaries of the Conservators of Mortgages.	EXPENSES of Criminal Prosecutions recovered from the parties concerned.	EXPENSES of Civil Law-Suits recovered.	RECEIPTS from the Sale of Domains belonging to the State *.	Accidental Receipts.	TOTAL.
1816.	105,594,089	24,932,086	4,182,336	3,248,833	1,848,472	1,732,688	»	127,424	599,093	18,619	29,325,330	216,852	171,825,872
1817.	128,273,842	27,387,563	4,514,721	1,605,054	3,124,040	1,390,056	37,703	271,490	683,696	16,767	12,536,385	796,867	180,638,100
1818.	128,387,110	27,496,563	4,648,060	1,581,657	3,427,190	1,315,642	188,073	265,361	678,834	14,868	6,269,120	350,480	174,622,963
1819.	117,074,607	26,063,547	4,587,386	1,557,234	3,272,527	1,267,269	332,666	230,691	576,511	»	4,882,905	237,846	160,083,195
1820.	116,692,123	25,742,149	3,600,050	1,272,782	2,816,726	1,330,518	387,421	222,185	550,966	»	5,124,846	341,878	158,081,651
1821.	123,955,719	26,302,843	3,675,709	1,278,540	2,960,887	1,425,688	374,943	237,700	586,820	20,151	3,836,749	206,851	164,862,606
1822.	122,209,920	26,793,732	3,688,663	1,278,043	3,442,497	1,639,072	373,096	230,044	603,837	24,888	5,983,831	224,380	166,492,008
1823.	122,859,423	26,909,089	3,707,884	1,272,676	3,737,791	1,620,673	404,713	220,987	648,861	32,475	3,964,938	269,993	165,649,508
1824.	134,744,504	26,977,941	3,718,081	1,355,859	3,363,568	1,634,990	356,649	235,682	694,606	33,730	3,320,678	198,633	176,634,926
1825.	135,398,081	27,558,516	3,950,969	1,378,398	4,112,109	1,780,483	347,167	235,152	802,105	30,740	3,301,988	165,758	178,801,472
1826.	136,394,547	27,875,605	3,842,144	1,450,064	4,942,724	1,866,026	351,154	230,168	767,861	32,212	2,491,803	70,922	180,315,253
1827.	136,849,383	27,793,017	3,919,789	1,425,731	3,313,411	1,864,323	333,124	233,215	743,519	40,066	2,206,434	77,981	178,777,993
1828.	140,681,655	28,995,611	4,053,476	1,602,924	3,968,843	1,917,690	362,921	246,217	691,690	38,247	2,669,734	34,628	185,263,638
1829.	148,830,000	27,773,000	»	»	»	»	»	»	»	»	2,011,079	»	184,560,000

* It would appear from the above Table that there was a decrease in the product of Domains; but that is not the case, as receipts of the Domains must not be considered as an annual revenue, but as *bona fida* Sales.

TABLE III.

DATES.	TOTAL PRODUCE OF WOODS AND FORESTS.	
1816	17,849,956 fr.	87 c.
1817	21,637,762	4
1818	20,181,339	81
1819	18,304,810	78
1820	15,857,162	67
1821	20,162,140	22
1822	24,661,503	17
1823	23,197,641	16
1824	23,165,302	41
1825	28,215,547	23
1826	31,594,333	74
1827	26,964,719	0
1828	29,308,653	0
1829	28,150,000	0

TABLE IV. CUSTOMS AND SALT.

DATES.	CUSTOMS. DUTY ON IMPORTS.	DUTY ON EXPORTS.	SHIP DUES.	CONTINGENT RECEIPTS.	TOTAL.	SALT. DUTY RECEIVED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION.
1816	44,461,438 fr.	3.962,391 fr.	2.484,232 fr.	550 529 fr.	51,458,590 fr.	42,748,123 fr.
1817	56,928,395	3,226,911	2,081,424	556,363	62,793,093	46.840,509
1818	60,023,271	4,253,280	2.305,795	473,185	67,055,531	48.961.633
1819	5,6294,644	4,214,618	2,001,414	814,504	63 325,180	48,938,499
1820	70,342.564	3,772,050	2,206.274	1,082,938	77,403,826	52 847,350
1821	69,913,833	2,671,201	2,092,713	1,212,681	76,090,428	52,536,535
1822	78,343,099	2,114,762	2,339 694	1,191.311	83.988,866	52,280,155
1823	70,294,349	1,759.080	2,410,519	1,327,025	75,790,773	53,467,273
1824	92,357,670	1,668.944	2,407 950	1,587,947	98,022,511	52,762 758
1825	86,993,594	1,683,521	2,335,455	1,351,152	92,363,722	53.950,432
1826	99,674,164	1,420,107	3,072,899	955,219	105,122,389	53,692,953
1827	93,591,000	1,545,437	2,753 000	778,000	98,668,000	54.375,812
1828	104.164.000	1,447,867	2.971.883	698,000	109,282,157	54,243,110
1829	99,429,000	1,394,000	3,260,183	600,000	104,683,183	54,164,518

The above duty is on salt from the works, and has no connexion with the *Salines de l'Est* (already explained).

TABLE V.

LIQUIDS AND DIVERS DUTIES. TOBACCO AND GUN-POWDER.

DATES.	LIQUIDS.	DUTY on Brewing Beer.	LICENSES.	DUTY on OIL.	PUBLIC VEHICLES.	CARDS.	SALT. (Salines de l'Est.)	STAMPING. Articles in Gold and Silver.	INTERIOR NAVIGATION. Dues and tolls of Bridges.	A TENTH of the produce of the Octrois.	DIVERS RECEIPTS.	TOBACCO.	GUN-POWDER.	TOTAL.
1816.	58,690,039	3,474,532	2,563,552	»	2,379,479	402,241	4,139,990	688,988	3,963,093	3,511,959	2,571,535	55,451,861	»	139,837,269
1817.	62,509,926	5,207,143	2,704,285	2,051,670	2,403,661	356,894	5,661,279	629,310	4,515,834	2,775,260	2,967,269	63,008,136	»	154,790,667
1818.	74,049,552	8,072,630	2,978,917	2,874,636	2,836,168	422,824	5,695,370	785,168	4,857,974	3,379,051	3,867,739	65,830,550	2,146,582	177,797,101
1819.	82,373,861	7,313,833	3,167,236	3,035,376	3,013,358	433,697	5,409,282	816,573	4,812,433	4,059,885	4,483,835	64,153,534	3,274,334	186,347,237
1820.	85,948,838	7,684,041	3,144,491	2,956,819	3,067,180	435,813	5,919,528	931,726	5,147,625	4,393,385	4,678,318	64,044,504	3,518,419	191,870,687
1821.	85,269,774	9,019,636	3,074,558	3,083,782	3,399,815	454,094	6,049,804	1,178,366	5,386,457	4,333,464	4,526,833	65,072,858	3,199,374	194,048,815
1822.	91,469,880	10,407,338	3,137,035	2,817,001	3,651,247	459,585	6,179,444	1,300,457	5,550,483	4,461,830	4,619,163	65,021,569	3,663,385	202,728,417
1823.	90,958,496	8,366,848	3,101,793	55,599	3,976,222	453,592	6,255,292	1,230,907	5,628,665	4,424,362	4,503,947	63,902,831	3,502,516	196,361,070
1824.	14,115,735	9,248.439	3,175,599	»	4,409,273	520,635	6,934,772	1,494,520	6,034,100	4,809,929	4,634,849	66,045,545	3,453,749	204,877,145
1825.	97,112,249	10,259,275	3,208,563	»	5,105,122	574,250	6,918,496	1,680,458	6,245,284	4,945,300	4,944,137	67,329,419	3,918,954	212,241,507
1826.	98,865,782	10,258,053	3,213,389	»	5,370,140	553,560	6,710,981	1,501,268	6,202,748	4,963,633	4,931,602	67,035,337	4,044,054	213,640,547
1827.	96,089,895	9,291,000	3,307,775	»	5,327,000	538,448	6,734,000	1,396,449	5,805,728	4,934,930	5,188,558	66,740,895	4,247,937	209,603,725
1828.	97,384,939	9,234,000	3,366,564	»	5,497,000	524,190	6,877,000	1,438,318	5,753,716	4,866,507	5,227,342	67,989,487	4,097,171	212,257,249
1829.	89,700,000	8,14,0000	»	»	»	»	»	»	»	»	»	66,603,471	1,649,323	206,136,405

TABLE VI. PRODUCE OF POSTS.

DATES.	POSTAGE OF LETTERS.	DUTY OF 5 PER CENT ON REMITTANCES OF MONEY.	DUTY ON PLACES IN THE MAIL COACHES.	DUTY ON PLACES IN PACKETS.	BALANCES FROM FOREIGN OFFICES.	DIVERS CONTINGENT RECEIPTS.	TOTAL.
1816	19.825,210 fr.	414,329 fr.	147,680 fr.	»	542,751 fr.	43,030 fr.	20,973,000 fr.
1817	20,275.312	428,228	128,329	»	580,568	15,733	21,428,172
1818	20,935,049	386,597	110,988	»	540,796	23,371	21,995,901
1819	20,939,101	422,784	1,045 912	»	508,481	53,460	22,969,738
1820	20,799,720	481,164	1,289,439	71,775 fr.	478,581	40,372	23,161,051
1821	21,107,013	435,386	1,588,981	69,787	502,294	169,242	23,892,697
1822	21,9 1.667	497,239	1,455,245	66,722	510,991	106,235	24 528,299
1823	22,780,634	605.985	1,470,020	31,498	458,675	17,532	25,364 344
1824	23,703,028	586,795	1,561,280	34,110	526.744	75,081	26,487,038
1825	24,724.718	561,723	1,627,086	53,264	571,959	13,789	27.552,639
1826	24,762,067	634,282	1,564,121	61,757	574,545	32,560	27.629,332
1827	24.755,863	562,579	1,585.553	66,429	547,262	23,268	27,540.905
1828	27.211,701	621,289	2,119,538	48,069	525,684	19,339	30,545.620
1829	27,125,902	655,508	2,279,374	41,090	460,092	12,582	30,754,551

TABLE VII.

LOTTERY.

DATES.	NETT PROFITS.
1816.	13,051,908
1817.	10,021,073
1818.	15,405,557
1819.	10,639.170
1820.	22,145,208
1821.	13,992,775
1822.	17,494,138
1823.	16,179,052
1824.	12,747,622
1825.	15,505,359
1826.	11,897,958
1827.	11,306,336
1828.	14,869,551
1829.	12,777,528

GENERAL BUDGET OF THE REVENUES

FOR THE SERVICE OF 1829.

NATURE OF THE REVENUES.		PRODUCT OF THE PRESUMED SUMS.
I. PRODUCTS SPECIALLY APPLIED TO THE CONSOLIDATED DEBT.		
Registries, Stamps, and Domains.		
Fees on registering Stamps, Mortgages, etc.	177,700,000	
Produce of Domains sold.	5,200,000	190,000,000 fr.
Produce accruing from Forests, On Timber sold in 1828. 3,550,000		
D°. for 1829. . 3,550,000	7,100,000	
Timber.		
To be paid for in bills of exchange. Timber felled in 1828.	23,750,000	47,500,000
D°. in 1829.	23,750,000	
Customs and Salt Duties.		
Customs and navigation dues, and accidental receipts.	98,550,000	
Duties upon Salt.	54,370,000	152,920,000
TOTAL.		390,420,000
II. PRODUCT APPLIED TO THE GENERAL EXPENSES OF THE STATE.		
Indirect Taxes.		
General Duties on Liquors, Wine, etc. . .	138,900,000	
Sale of Tabacco.	66,700,000	
D°. of Gunpowder.	4,259,000	210,900,000 fr.
Receipts of sums advanced.	1,050,000	
Posts.		31,050,000
Lotteries.		12,900,000
Carry over,		254,850,000

Brought forward,			254,850,000 fr.
Direct Taxes.			
Total amount of principal and additional centimes.		277,556,621	
Centimes raised towards collecting taxes. .		12,092,000	
Centimes Facultatifs and communaux: For Departmental expenses. . . .	10,600,000		
For expenses of the cadastre. .	3,900,000		
For ordinary and extraordinary expenses of the communes. .	18,200,000	32,700,000	323,988,621
The first summons to pay the taxes and sundry other receipts.		1,640,000	
Additional Duties levied on the woods of the communes, and public establishments.			1,558,200
Received by the treasury from the City of Paris, out of the produce of the farm of gaming-houses.			5,500,000
From Salt works and the Salt mines called *Sels de l'Est*			1,800,000
Receipts for the 1/10th of the octrois . .		4,000,000	
Fees for verifying weights and measures.*		770,000	
Special and eventual departmental resources.		770,000	8,040,000
Product of seizures by the customs. . . .		1,000,000	
D°. D°. subject to indirect duties.		900,000	
TOTAL.			595,736,821 fr.

RECAPITULATION OF RECEIPTS.

1°. Receipts applied to the consolidated debt.	390,420,000 fr.
2°. *Idem* applied to the general expenses of the state.	595,736,821
Presumed amount of the product of receipts for the year 1829.	986,156,821 fr.

* There is in every department a bureau for verifying weights and measures, which every tradesman is obliged to exhibit to the inspector once a-year, and for which he pays a trifling fee.

GENERAL BUDGET OF THE EXPENDITURE

FOR THE SERVICE OF THE YEAR 1829.

A. BUDGET OF THE CONSOLIDATED DEBT AND SINKING FUND.

Interest on the perpetual debt inscribed on 1st January 1828 in 5 per cents.		165,345,914 fr.
Ditto in 4 1/2 per cents.		1,034,764
Ditto in 3 per cents.		33,970,269
		200,350,947
For the arrears of indemnity to the emigrants, two half-years ending the 22d June and 22d December 1829.	6,000,000	
For ditto, half-year ending 22d December 1829.	3,000,000	9,000,000
		209,350,947
Deduct for the arrears of dividends which it is presumed will be redeemed by the Sinking Fund, and struck out of the *Grand-Livre* of the public debt and annulled for the profit of the state.		5,250,000
Amount of rentes for the year 1829.		204,100,947
Annual grant to the Sinking Fund.		40,000,000
		244,100,947
Interest of New Loan and additional grant of 800,000 fr. to the Sinking Fund.		4,800,000
		248,900,947

B. BUDGET OF GENERAL EXPENSES, ETC.

FIRST PART. GENERAL SERVICE.

The Civil List (expenses of the King). . . .		25,000,000
Expenses of the Royal Family.		7,000,000
Expenses of the Department of Justice. . . .		19,610,876
Ditto Foreign Affairs.		8,700,000
Ditto Ecclesiastical Affairs and Clergy.		32,645,000
Ditto Public Education.		1,825,000
Ditto Interior.		105,854,650
Ditto Commerce and Manufactures.		3,246,400
Carry over,		203,881,926

Brought forward	203,881,926 fr.
Expenses of the War Departments.	193,736,928
Ditto Marine.	56,719,856
Chamber of Peers.	2,000,000
Ditto of Deputies.	600,000
Legion of Honour.	3,400,000
Audit Office (Cour des Comptes).	1,256,000
Life Annuities.	7,300,000
Pensions, etc.	56,596,325 *
Interest on the sums deposited at the treasury by public functionaries, etc.	9,000,000
Mints.	939,300
Bons Royaux. Service of the treasury, including interest on the floating debt 6 millions and salaries to persons retired on pensions.	13,453,700
Central Administration of Finances.	5,555,000
Total of the first part. . . .	554,439,035 fr.

* 47 millions military pensions, 5,700,000 ecclesiastical, and widows of Peers and civil pensions are paid out of this sum.

PART II. EXPENSES FOR COLLECTING THE PUBLIC REVENUES.

Expenses attending the service of direct contributions.	20,942,000 fr.
Ditto Enregistrement, Domains, and *Stamps*.	10,914,350
Ditto Forests.	4,020,150
Ditto Customs.	24,450,000
Ditto Indirect Contributions.	47,459,700
Ditto Posts, horses and letters	16,518,590
Ditto Lotteries, including 6 per cent. allowed to office keepers. . . .	3,653,895
Allowances to the receivers of the product of timber cut down.	100,000
Total of the second part.	128,058,685

PART III. REIMBURSEMENTS AND SURCHARGES.

Surcharges on the direct taxes.	24,361,394 fr.
Ditto on sums unduly received.	2,208,000
Ditto on products of fines and confiscations.	3,916,000
Premiums on exported goods.	10,000,000
Discount on the duty on salt.	1,400,000
Total of the third part.	41,885,394

RECAPITULATION OF EXPENSES.

A.	Consolidated debt and annual grants to the sinking fund.	248,900,947 fr.
B.	Part I. General Service.	554,439,035
	Part II. Administration of the public revenues.	128,058,685
	Part III. Reimbursement and restitutions.	41,885,394
	Total expenditure for the year 1829.	973,284,061

BUDGET OF THE MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR

FOR 1829.

NATURE OF EXPENDITURE.

SECTION I. CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION.

Salary of the Minister of the Interior.	150,000,000 f.	
Salaries of 4 Directors, 194 Clerks of different ranks, 4 Inspectors of books published, 2 Examiners of dramatic pieces, 7 persons called *huissiers*, and 47 office-keepers, etc.	783,000	
Pensions allowed to persons whose situations have been suppressed (as a measure of economy).	95,000	
Office expenses of various kinds.	242,000	
Secret expenses, the account of which is rendered direct to the King †	1,900,000	
TOTAL.		153,020,000

† This sum is taken from 5,500,000 fr. arising from the farm of gaming-houses in Paris, which is thus disposed of:—

Secret service of the police.	1,900,000 fr.
Hospital of Quinze-Vingts.	250,000
Succour to colonists.	1,000,000
Bureaux of charity, hospitals, etc.	390,000
Aid to royal theatres.	1,460,000
Balance paid over to the royal treasury.	500,000

The whole of the secret service money is in fact a fund at the disposal of the King, who gives pensions out of it to many persons unconnected with the police. The sister of the celebrated Robespierre, and the widow of the no less celebrated Billaud de Varennes, received pensions of 6,000 fr. each out of this fund, which they originally obtained from Napoleon, and continued to receive from the Bourbons. Both these ladies are still living. In the session of 1831, M. Périer obtained from the Chamber FIVE MILLIONS OF FRANCS FOR SECRET SERVICES MONEY, in addition to the annual grant.

SECTION II. BRIDGES AND ROADS.

Salary of the Director General of this Department.	50,000 fr.	
Ditto of 7 heads of divisions and bureaux, 7 upper clerks, and 43 other persons of different ranks, 14 office-keepers and porters, coals, candles, and other office expenses.	212,000	
		262,000 fr.

Brought forward,		262,000 fr.
Royal Roads and Bridges, Navigation, Passage Boats, Quays and Canals, Ports, etc.		
Repairs of high roads, making new, and repairs of bridges.		18,190,000
Repairs of the roads from Paris into Spain, Roanne to the Rhone, and from Lyons to Bordeaux, and sundry bridges.		2,110,000
Expenses of keeping in repair the banks of navigable rivers and passage boats.		2,480,000
Repairs of quays.		230,000
Expense of Canals *of Charolois and Rochelle*		460,000
Ditto of maritime commercial ports. . . .		2,440,000
Ditto of light-houses, planting downs on the coast, draining marshes, etc. .		900,000
Ditto of engraving maps, purchase of books, etc.		100,000
		27,172,000
Royal Corps of Ponts et Chaussées.		
Pay of the council attached to the department for roads and bridges, etc.	91,500 fr.	
Expenses of a school for students who are afterwards employed on this service.	75,000	
Pay of inspectors and engineers, etc.	2,577,000	
		2,743,500 fr.
Royal Corps of Miners.		
Expenses of a council, and a school and engineers belonging to the department of mines.	324,500	
A school for miners at St.-Etienne.	20,000	
Expense of searching for mines, and sums paid as an encouragement.	40,000	
		384,500
For the service of telegraphs and pay of officers employed on that service.		700,000
Sums contributed by Government to make up the insufficiency of the loans raised for canals, ports, etc., interests, premiums, and refunding loans.		11,430,000
Total.		42,430,000

SECTION III. PUBLIC WORKS.

Repairs and keeping in order the hotels occupied by ministers, and other public buildings.	340,000 fr.
Reconstruction of the hall of the Chamber of Deputies.	500,000
The church of the Magdalen.	500,000
The triumphal arch of l'Etoile.	500,000
The church of Ste.-Geneviève (*the Pantheon*).	70,000
Ditto of St.-Denis	100,000
Polytechnic School.	50,000
The Museum of Natural History and the Royal Botanical Garden at Paris	50,000
King's Library.	60,000
Royal School of Fine Arts.	110,000
Pedestals for the statues to be placed on the bridge of Louis XVI.	55,000
Ditto for the statues of Louis XIII and Louis XVI.	60,000
Reconstruction of the buildings of the Deaf and Dumb School.	60,000
Ditto of the Veterinary School at Alfort.	45,000
Finishing the central prisons.	850,000
Grants to the departments for the preservation of ancient monuments, hot baths, etc.	173,936
Establishment of a lazarette and other sanitary establishments.	400,000
Total.	3,923,936 fr.

SECTION IV. MISCELLANEOUS SERVICE.

Religious Establishments not Catholic.

Salary of pastors.	592,000	
30 Exhibitions to students at 400 f. 60 Half Ditto. at 200	24,000	
Repairs of protestant churches and indemnities to protestant pastors. *	60,000	
Carry over,		676,000 fr.

* *Reformed Church.*

3	pastors at 3,000 fr.	9,000 fr.
28	— at 2,000 fr.	56,000
70	— at 1,500 fr.	105,000
198	— at 1,200 fr.	237,000
	Carry over,	407,000

Brought forward. . .		676,000 fr.
Establishments of Public Utility.		
Archives of the Kingdom.	80,000	
Royal Academy of Medicine and for propagating vaccination.	40,000	
Sanitary Establishment	50,000	170,000
Benevolent Establishments.		
Hospital for 300 blind at Paris .	250,000 fr.	
Royal Institution for blind children at ditto	68,000	
Ditto for deaf and dumb at ditto .	130,000	
Ditto for the insane at Bordeaux, and at Charenton near Paris	40,000	488,000
Succour to the emigrant colonists of St.-Domingo,		1,000,000
General succours to the *Bureaux de charité*, to the hospitals, schools, etc. .	390,000 fr.	
To charitable societies	100,000	490,000
Expenses of two establishments for improving the breed of horses and 26 depots of stallions; premiums for the encouragement of horse-races; purchase of horses and mares; salaries of inspectors and travelling expenses; riding-schools in Paris, Bordeaux, Caen, Rennes, and Toulouse; and contingent expenses . . .		1,815,000
Expenses of veterinary schools at Alfort and Lyons	212,000 fr.	
Encouragement of agriculture, including the royal sheep depots, etc.	100,000	312,000
Carry over,		4,951,000

Brought forward,	407,000 fr.
Lutheran Church.	
2 pastors at 3,000 fr.	6,000 fr.
25 — at 2,000 fr.	50,000
22 — at 1,500 fr.	33,000
172 — at 1,200 fr.	206,000
	702,000
Deduct.	
For revenues in the departments of Doubs, the Upper and Lower Rhine.	111,000
	591,000

Brought forward, . .		4,951,000 fr.
Salaries of persons for verifying weights and measures		600,000
Grants to the Institute or union of the Royal Academies	425,000 fr.	
To the Royal College of France .	120,000	
Salaries to the directors of the Museum of Natural History and the Garden of Plants . . .	335,000	
Ditto, Bureau of Longitude and Royal Observatory	115,000	
Ditto, Royal Library	205,000	
Ditto, Mazarine Library . . .	35,000	
Ditto, the Arsenal Library . .	33,000	
Ditto, Library of Ste. Geneviève .	37,000	
Ditto, the Polytechnic School .	235,000	
School for Oriental languages, etc.	53,000	1,593,000
Expense of the School of the Fine Arts at Rome	107,000 fr.	
Ditto, ditto, at Paris	90,000	
Free Drawing Schools at Paris, Dijon, and Lyons	46,000	
Monuments of the Arts in public places	130,000	
Purchase of marble for the sculpture of public monuments . .	80,000	
Encouragements to men of letters (the maximum being 6,000 fr. per annum), to sciences, fine arts, and the drama. . . .	160,000	
Subscriptions to literary publications	172,000	
Lodging expenses allowed to artists and men of letters . .	50,000	835,000
Sums granted by the Government to the Royal Theatres, including the school for singing and declamation		1,460,000
Total		9,439,000 fr.

SECTION V. DEPARTMENTAL EXPENSES.

Salaries of prefects, sous-prefects, general secretaries, counsellors of prefecture, and office expenses	7,708,300 fr.
Ordinary expenses of the departmental prisons	
Carry over,	7,708,300 fr.

Brought forward,		7,708,300 fr.
for prisoners confined for one year and upwards, the number on an average being 17,000		3,250,000 fr.
Expense of repairs and furnishing prisons	46,000 fr.	
The expense of conducting felons condemned to the galleys . .	130,000	
Indemnity paid to the departments for prisoners confined in other prisons for want of room in the central prisons	25,000	
Buildings where the *Cours Royales* are held	35,000	
Expenses of hot baths belonging to Government for the use of the poor	91,496	327,496
Rent of hotels of prefectures, furniture, and repairs . . .	250,000 fr.	
Ordinary expenses of the central prisons	3,650,000	
Retreat for mendicants, succours for employing the poor, to prevent mendicity	1,300,000	
Barracks of the *gendarmerie* .	1,050,000	
Rent, furniture, and other minor expenses of courts and tribunals	1,000,000	
Building and repairs of hotels of prefectures, tribunals, prisons, depots for employing the poor, barracks, and other departmental buildings	2,800,000	
Departmental roads, bridges, and public works of local utility, not included in the budget of the Director of roads and bridges	4,230,000	
Grant to foundling hospitals . .	5,567,000	
Encouragement for planting forest trees, to agricultural societies, veterinary surgeons, and for lectures on midwifery, vaccination, etc.	1,300,000	
To complete the liquidation of expenses in preceding years	296,000	
Sundry contingent expenses .	1,304,915	22,741,915
Total		34,027,711 fr.

SECTION VI. SPECIAL SUCCOURS.

Succour granted to persons suffering from fire, hail-storms, inundations, etc.	1,819,353
Extraordinary expenses in the departments, to be provided for by *centimes faoultatifs* raised in the departments after the votes of their councils	10,000,000
Eventual resources to be raised in the departments	770,000
Total	12,589,353 fr.

RECAPITULATION.

Sections.	
I. Expenses of the central administration of the home department, including secret service money. .	153,020,000 fr.
II. Do. high-roads and bridges	42,430,000
III. Do. public works, including 500,000 fr. towards rebuilding the Chamber of Deputies	3,923,936
IV. Do. miscellaneous services	9,439,000
V. Departmental expenses :— Additional centimes . .	34,027,711
VI. Special succours granted to sufferers by hail, fire, inundations, etc. . . .	1,819,353
Extraordinary departmental expenses	10,000,000
Miscellanies	770,000
Total . . .	255,430,000 fr.

EXPENSES OF THE CITY OF PARIS, CONSIDERED AS A COMMUNE.

Previously to laying before our readers the budget of the prefect of the department of the Seine, for the receipts and expenses of his administration in the city of Paris, we shall briefly explain the nature of certain establishments under his direction.

The *Grande* and *Petite Voirie* are establishments for ensuring the public safety and the cleanliness of the city; the former comprehends the inspection of all new buildings, and the repairs of old ones. Permissions are granted (for which a duty is paid) for all new erections. The latter is principally under the control of the Prefect of police, who has the charge of preventing public nuisances and obstructions in the streets; and levies and receives the fines incurred, as well as the duty on sign-boards. All the cemeteries of Paris are without the walls, and belong to the Prefecture, which grants the ground for burials, either for a term of years or in perpetuity, at a price fixed according to the extent of the vault or tomb; and every necessary appendage of a funeral must be furnished by a Government establishment called *Pompes Funèbres*, by which a coffin, hearse, mourning coaches, etc., are provided according to a tarif divided into six classes.

The wholesale markets, as well as the covered retail markets, whether for fish, meat, poultry, fruit, or vegetables, also belong to the Prefecture, the good order and cleanliness of which is under the inspection of the prefect of police, who collects for the prefect of the department the duties paid on articles sold in the wholesale markets, as well as the rent of shops and stalls for retail.

The abattoirs or slaughter-houses of Paris also belong to the Prefecture; and to prevent those nuisances so bitterly complained of in other countries, they are established at the extremities or barriers of the city; and adjoining them are the melting-houses for tallow. The duty on

slaughtering animals at the abattoirs is charged on their entering the barrier of the city, according to the following tarif:—An ox, 6 fr.; a cow, 4 fr.; a calf, 2 fr.; a sheep, 50 c.; a pig, 1 fr.

Every butcher in Paris, before he can obtain a license to open a shop, must make a deposit of 3,000 francs at the Prefecture; for which he receives interest. There is a fund established by the Prefecture called the *caisse de Poissy*. Sceaux and Poissy are the principal cattle-markets in the vicinity of the metropolis. Every animal sold in these markets must be paid for at a bureau established for that purpose. When a bargain is made between a grazier and a butcher, the latter delivers into the bureau an account of his purchases, which is paid by the *caisse de Poissy*, and the butcher is accountable to the *caisse* for the sum paid by the bureau to the seller. This establishment also grants loans to a certain number of butchers for one month, for which they pay an interest of 5 per cent. The graziers pay a duty on every head of cattle sold in the markets of Poissy and Sceaux:— 10 fr. for an ox; 6 fr. for a cow; 2 fr. 40 c. for a calf; and 70 c. for a sheep. There is also a *caisse* at the weekly horse-fair at Paris, in which every purchaser must deposit the value of the animal he buys, for the space of nine days; and if within this term a horse prove unsound, or be stolen, the purchaser can reclaim his money. If no claim is made, it is paid to the seller.

The Prefecture has also immense warehouses, called *Entrepôts Généraux*, of wine and liquids; and individuals pay a rent for wine, etc. placed in bond until it is sold. For the security thus afforded, for every 100 litres of wine 50 centimes is paid, and the duty for the warehouse room at the rate of two francs a year for every three feet square. There are, however, particular cellars, where one franc is paid for every hectolitre of brandy and three francs for pure alcohol. These duties are paid on the goods being taken out of bond, however long they may have remained in store.

Although more than five millions of francs are annually paid by the prefect of the department of the Seine towards the hospitals and poor-houses in Paris, there is an establishment in Paris called *Mont-de-Piété*, the profits of which are between 300,000 and 400,000 francs, which are destined to the support of these charitable institutions. This establishment has an exclusive right to lend money upon pledges, at the rate of 1 per cent. per month, with the charges for registering; if this interest is not paid at the end of twelve months, the articles pledged are sold, and the surplus produce of the sale (deduction being made of the interest and expenses) is paid to the claimant on producing the *reconnaissance* or duplicate for the articles pledged. The theatres also pay one tenth of the net receipts of every representation towards the support of hospitals, etc. These amount to about 665,000 francs a year; and all public gardens, concerts, etc., pay a certain sum, in lieu of one fourth of their receipts, for the same purpose.

The prefect of police, as will be seen by the budget of the prefect of the department, has the disposal of 6 millions and a half of francs, out of which he pays the *gendarmerie*, and various other expenses immediately connected with the functions of his administration, independant of the expenses of the secret-service of the police, out of which he pays thieftakers, secret agents, etc., etc.

TARIF OF OCTROI DUTIES FOR THE CITY OF PARIS.

Wine in the wood.	21 fr. 00 c. p. 100 litres.
Ditto in bottles	30 c. p. litre.
Vinegar, verjuice, lees, and sour wine, either in wood or bottles	10 fr. 50 c. p. 100 litres.
Alcohol or pure spirit contained in brandy or other spirituous liquors	81 fr. 40 c. p. 100 litres.
Brandy, etc., in bottles, liqueurs, fruit in brandy, and spirits in wood or bottles.	81 fr. 40 c. id.
Perry	11 fr. 00 c. id.
Cider and mead.	10 fr. 00 c. id.
Beer	4 fr. 00 c. id.
Olive oil	40 fr. 00 c. id.
All other oils, whether vegetable or animal.	20 fr. 00 c. id.

Provisions.

Oxen	24 fr. 00 c. a head.
Cows	15 fr. 00 c. id.
Calves	6 fr. 00 c. id.
Sheep	1 fr. 50 c. id.
Pigs and boars	9 fr. 00 c. id.
Butcher's meat cut up	00 fr. 13 c. p. 2 lb.
Sausages, hams, fresh or salt pork	00 fr. 20 c. id.
Livers, lights, etc.	00 fr. 5 c. id.

There is an additional duty of 10 c. on every franc.

Combustibles.

Hard fire wood	2 fr. 00 c. a stere.
White wood	1 fr. 50 c. id.
Faggots	3 fr. 00 c. a hundred.
Charcoal	0 fr. 75 c. a sack.
Coals	0 fr. 50 c. a hectolitre.

Forage.

Hay, clover, luzerne, etc.	4 fr. 00 c. p. 100 trusses of 10 lb.
Straw	1 fr. 00 c. id.
Oats	0 fr. 50 c. per hectolitre.

Building materials.

Lime	1 fr. 20 c. p. hectolitre.
Plaster	0 fr. 36 c. id.
Unhewn stone	0 fr. 60 c. 3 feet cube.
Hewn stone	1 fr. 60 c. id.
Marble and granite	16 fr. 00 c. id.
Slates, large	5 fr. 00 c. the 1000.
Slates, small	4 fr. 00 c. id.
Bricks	6 fr. 00 c. id.
Tiles	7 fr. 50 c. id.
Square tiles	5 fr. 00 c. id.
Clay and marl	0 fr. 60 p. 3 feet cube.
Squares	1 fr. 00 c. id.

Wood for building.

Oak, elm, ash, walnut, and cherry-tree, etc.	10 fr. 00 c. a stere.
The same sawed in planks	10 fr. 00 c. id.
Beech, deal, sycamore, poplar, birch, lime, etc.	8 fr. 00 c. id.
The same sawed in planks	8 fr. 00 c. id.
Laths	10 fr. p. 100 bundles.

Boat-wood and old timber.

Boat-wood	Oak	24 fr. 00 c. p. boat.
	Deal	12 fr. 00 c. id.
Old timber	Oak	0 fr. 18 c. 3 feet square.
	Deal	0 fr. 10 c. id.

Sundry articles.

Dry cheese	0 fr. 10 c. p. kilog.
White and grey salt	0 fr. 05 c. id.
White wax, bougies, wax candles, and refined spermaceti	0 fr. 30 c. id.

Yellow bee's wax and spermaceti	0 fr. 20 c. p. kilog.
Barley	1 fr. 00 c. p. hectol.
Hops	0 fr. 10 c. id.
Tallow in lumps or in candles	3 fr. 00 c. p. 200 lb.

Tarif of the duties paid for sales in the halls and wholesale markets; as also by coach stands, etc., etc.

Poultry and game	10	p. cent of the produce of the sale.
Butter and eggs	2 ½	id.
Sea fish	6	id.
Oysters	8	id.
Fresh water fish	5	id.
Grain		0 fr. 60 c. p. sack.
Flour		1 fr. 25 c. id.
Linen and broad cloth		0 f. 50 c. p. piece.
Hackney coaches		0 fr. 75 c. for each number.
Cabriolets		1 fr. 60 c. id.
Covered Magazines for grain		3 fr. 00 c. p. day.
id. for flour		0 fr. 50 c. id.

SUMMARY OF THE BUDGET

FOR THE SERVICE

OF THE CITY OF PARIS AS A COMMUNE IN 1829,

AS PRESENTED TO

THE MUNICIPAL COUNCIL BY THE PREFECT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE.

NATURE OF THE RECEIPTS.	
EXTRAORDINARY RECEIPTS.	
Funds produced from an additional *octroi* on various articles of consumption on entering the gates of Paris, and from a per centage charged on the gross amount of the sales made in the public markets for fish, poultry, game, grain, flour, butter and eggs *, and applied to liquidating the debt of the city of Paris of 33 millions, contracted during the occupation of the allied armies from 1815 to 1818	7,950,000 fr.
Additional *octroi* imposed for completing a new canal from the Seine to the town of St. Denis, called the *canal de l'Ourcq* . . .	1,500,000
Product of sales of lands, buildings, etc., belonging to the city of Paris	1,200,000
Product of annuities sold to the amount of 65,542 fr. per annum	1,200,000
Total amount of the extraordinary receipts	11,850,000
ORDINARY RECEIPTS.	
Gross amount of the ordinary *octroi* on articles of consumption on entering the gates of Paris	20,500,000
The extra assessment of five centimes per franc on the gross amount of the land-tax levied in Paris as *centimes communaux*	307,834
The extra assessment on the amount of the *contribution personnelle*, as *cent. com.* .	81,917
The extra assessment on the price of *patentes* taken out in Paris, as *cent. com.*	60,000
Carry over,	20,949,751

* There are officers employed by the Government, who inspect the quality of the articles brought into the wholesale markets.

Brought forward,	20,949,751 fr.
The various rents and leases of houses and markets, etc., etc., including the receipt of near 11,000 francs paid for the privilege of letting out chairs on the *boulevards* . . .	220,181
Rents of the *entrepôts* of wine, brandy, oil, salt, and other articles of merchandise subject to an *octroi* duty	470,000
Receipts from the five slaughter-houses belonging to the city of Paris	1,103,000
Public weights and measures	410,000
From the office for the *alignement* of the streets	120,000
For stalls and standings in halls and market-places, coach stands, etc., ...	295,000
Fountains in Paris and subscriptions for supplies of water	660,000
Burial-grounds, funerals, marriages at the municipalities called *l'acte civil*	852,000
Product of the sums paid into the *caisse de Poissy*	1,350,000
Contingent receipts	50,000
Total amount of ordinary receipts . . .	26,479,932 fr.

PARTICULAR RECEIPTS.

The product of a special license granted to a company for keeping gaming-houses in Paris, called *la ferme des jeux de hazard* . . .	6,055,100
Eventual profits arising from these establishments *	1,044,900
	7,100,000 fr.

RECAPITULATION.

Extraordinary receipts . .	11,850,000 fr.
Ordinary receipts	26,479,932
Particular receipts	7,100,000
Total receipts	45,429,932 fr.

* If the profits of this establishment exceed a certain sum fixed upon by the Government, the surplus is paid into the Caisse of the municipality, and persons are employed by Government to examine the daily receipts.

ORDINARY EXPENDITURE.

Expenses of collecting the *octroi* at *entrepots*	1,567,787 fr.	
Expenses of the municipalities	40,000	
Expenses of interments . .	200,000	
Stamping and inspecting weights and measures	41,000	
Expenses on collecting duties on sales in wholesale-markets	219,700	
Building additional slaughter-houses.	95,000	
Interest paid to the butchers of Poissy, and other expenses of that establishment. . .	258,000	
Expenses attending inspection of quays, markets at Paris, Sceaux and Poissy, and erecting 2 new markets at Paris.	370,000	2,791,487
Lodging money allowed to the Secretary General of the Prefecture; furniture and repairs of the *Hôtel de Ville*; salaries of persons employed at the Prefecture of the department; and various other expenses .		257,900
Rent of houses for the mayors, *juges de paix*, etc.		349,688
Proportional expense for collecting the *contribution personnelle*		150,000
Pensions of youths placed at colleges.	150,000 fr.	
Salaries of 12 masters . . .	14,400	
Ditto of 12 school-mistresses .	14,400	
Prizes given to scholars . . .	2,200	
City library	15,000	
Riding-school	20,500	
Office providing female teachers	1,800	
Elementary schools	42,000	
A foundation for 73 students in the Royal Drawing-school .	4,480	
Committee for inspecting the primary schools	5,000	
Jury for examining female teachers	1,500	
Day scholars in the Deaf and Dumb school	4,000	275,280
Hôtel of the governor of Paris; lodgings and office expenses of the commandant of the city; ditto for the hôtel of the general commanding the 1st division		250,000
	Carry over,	4,074,355

Brought forward,	4,074,355
Salaries of directors, etc., of the *grande voirie.*	271,000
Salaries of clerks for public works etc. . .	99,000
Expenses of repairs of public buildings, sewers, the city walls, barriers, etc., and the new Exchange	305,840
Inspection and securing the quarries under the city of Paris and without the walls . . .	100,000
Rent of churches . . . . . 16,950 fr.	
Expense of the church service . 205,000	221,950
Fêtes and public ceremonies	48,000
One tenth of the nett product of the *octroi* of Paris annually paid into the Royal Treasury	1,692,186
Paid to sundry hospitals for land ceded by them to the city	82,169
Paid annually towards the expense of almshouses, hospitals, relief of the poor, and an office for providing healthy nurses . . .	5,200,000
The Police Department — For firemen, *gendarmerie* of Paris, pensions of retired commissaries and clerks, etc., etc.,* . . .	6,576,117
A commutation paid by the city of Paris in lieu of the tax called *contribution personnelle*	3,843,512
Paid to contractors for keeping up a constant supply of grain and flour in reserve in the city in case of scarcity	600,000
Expenses attending the supply of Paris with water	420,000
Pensions granted by the city of Paris to retired civil officers etc.	104,959
Funds destined to meet contingent ordinary expenses	30,000
Total of the ordinary expenses . .	23,669,088 fr.

EXTRAORDINARY EXPENDITURE.

Paid on account of the liquidation of the debt of 33 millions contracted by the city of Paris to defray the extraordinary charges incurred during the occupation by the Allies from 1815 to 1818	7,606,106
Paving of streets, 800,000 fr., etc., . . .	8,178,311
Total of extraordinary expenses . .	15,784,417

* The prefect of police, besides the sum allowed to him by the prefect of the department, is in the receipt of various sums arising from fines, hackney coach licences, ditto of water, carriers, porters, pedlars, etc. All these are applied to *secret services* which are not specified in his budget, but which he submits to the prefect of the department.

PARTICULAR EXPENSES.

Paid into the Royal Treasury in monthly instalments from the product of gaming-houses	5,500,000 fr.
Expense of *surveillance*, including 15,000 fr. a year for an agent of police who attends at the gaming-houses	151,000
Expenses of the *secret surveillance* of these houses	29,000
Total amount of particular expenses . .	5,680,000

GENERAL RECAPITULATION.

Extraordinary receipts . .	11,850,000 fr.	
Ordinary ditto	26,480,000	
Particular ditto	7,100,000	
Total receipts . . .	45,430,000 fr.	
Ordinary expenditure . . .	23,669,088 fr.	
Extraordinary ditto . . .	15,784,417	
Particular ditto	5,680,000	
Total expenditure . .	45,133,505 fr.	
Receipts exceeding the expenditure	296,495	
	45,430,000 fr.	

We have shown in the foregoing budget that the Prefect of police of Paris is allowed more than six millions and a half a year for the discharge of his office. Of this sum it appears, in his budget rendered to the prefect of the department, that the principal items are:—

Salaries of himself, secretaries, etc.	1,350,000 fr.
Lighting the streets of Paris	627,000
Watering and cleaning ditto	415,500
The *gendarmerie* of Paris (who are not paid by the Minister of War)	2,140,000
Firemen	445,000

The paving of the streets of Paris, as appears by the budget of the prefect of the department, costs 800,000 fr. Thus the city of Paris costs for paving, lighting, and cleaning of the streets, etc., 1,642,000 fr. annually.

BUDGET

OF THE MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS FOR 1829.

SECTION I.

Salary of the Minister	150,000 fr.
Ditto of *chefs de division, de bureaux,* and clerks (1)	500,000
Wages of messengers, office-keepers, etc. . .	50,000
Furniture of the offices, liveries of porters, etc., keeping up the stock of furniture, and divers other expenses	120,000
	820,000

SECTION II.

Salaries of persons on foreign service.

Political agents (on actual service) (2) . . .	3,042,000 fr.
Consular agents ditto (3)	1,792,000
Political and consular agents unemployed . .	200,000
	5,034,000

SECTION III.

Variable expenses.

House expenses of the Foreign-Office establishment	400,000 fr.
Expenses of the service (4)	1,000,000
Carry over	1,400,000

(1) The salary of a *chef de division,* whose office is similar to the English Under Secretary of State, is 30,000 fr., and the salaries of clerks vary according to their situation. The chefs de division in this department have higher salaries than those in the other ministries, where they have only 12,000 fr.

(2) On the 1st of January 1829 the number of political agents were:—9 ambassadors, 18 ministers plenipotentiaries, 50 secretaries of embassy or legation, etc.

(3) The number of consular agents at present employed are:—20 consuls-general, 48 consuls, 24 vice-consuls, 12 eleve vice-consuls, 36 interpreters, an inspector of *consulats,* 3 secretaries and King's interpreters and an agent at Marseilles for the Levant trade.

(4) The expenses of the service consist in postage of letters, packets, journals, official documents sent to ministers, translations and other charges of corres-

Brought forward,	1,400,000 fr.
Expense of couriers	216,000
Diplomatic presents	200,000
Miscellaneous expenses (1)	430,000
Secret expenses	700,000
Extraordinary missions and unforeseen expenses	200,000
	3,146,090 fr.

RECAPITULATION.

Section I.	820,000 fr.
— II.	5,034,000
— III.	3,146,000
Total	9,000,000 fr.

pondence; succour to religious establishments in the Levant; presents to pachas and inferior authorities; gifts; expenses of visits, feasts, and ceremonies; repairs of the *Palais de France* at Constantinople and at Therapia; wages of Janissaries for guarding the houses of consuls; temporary wages of interpreters (called drogmans); auxiliary writers of Turkish and Arabic, etc.

(1) 230,000 fr. paid annually to the Regency of Algiers, for the price of commercial concessions obtained in Africa, are included in this sum. This sum provides also for indemnities granted by his Majesty to ambassadors and consuls, etc., in cases of loss of property; succours granted to retired functionaries and widows, and persons who have been employed, but have no claim to a pension. No person employed at the foreign office or in the diplomatic service of the Government is entitled to any pension or retired allowance until after thirty years active service. Within the last four years an exception has been introduced in favour of ambassadors who now become entitled to an allowance the amount of which is not fixed by any scale; but depends on the will of the minister for the time, the maximum being fifteen thousand francs per annum. All extraordinary repairs of the hotel of the minister are also paid out of this sum.

SCALE OF SALARIES OF AMBASSADORS AT FOREIGN COURTS, MINISTERS PLENIPOTENTIARY, SECRETARIES OF LEGATION, CONSULS, VICE-CONSULS, ETC.

The following details were communicated to me by the kindness of the Count de la Ferronnays, when at the head of the foreign department; and as part of them are not generally known, having been derived from exclusive sources, they are thought to be not unworthy of publication.

Ambassadors.

At London and St. Petersbourg, 300,000 fr. each.
Rome and Madrid, 200,000 fr. each.
Vienna, 224,000 fr.
Naples, 130,000 fr.
Turin and Berne, 100,000 fr. each.
Constantinople, 150,000 fr.

Ministers Plenipotentiary.

Berlin, Lisbon, and Rio-Janeiro, 100,000 fr. each.
Washington, 80,000 fr.
Stockholm, the Hague, Copenhagen, Munich, 60,000 fr. each.
Dresden and Florence, 50,000 fr. each.
Stuttgard, Hanover, Hamburg, and Lucca, 40,000 fr. each.
Frankfort, 45,000 fr.
Carlsruhe, Darmstadt, and Cassel, 30,000 fr. each.

Secretaries to Embassies and Legations.

London, 1st secretary, 10,000 fr.; 2d, 6,000 fr.; 3d, 4,000 fr.
Madrid, Vienna, and St. Petersburgh, the same salaries.
Washington, Rome, and Berne, 1st secretary, 10,000 fr.; 2d, 6,000 fr.; 3d, 3,000 fr.
Auditor de Rote at Rome, 20,000 fr.
Constantinople, 1st secretary, 12,000 fr.; 2d, 8,000 fr.; and 3d, 5,000 fr.
Naples, Turin, and Rio-Janeiro, 1st secretary, 10,000 fr.; 2d, 6,000 fr.

Secretary-interpreter at Madrid, 4,000 fr.
Berlin and Lisbon, 1st secretary, 8,000 fr.; 2d, 5,000 fr.
The Hague, 1st secretary, 8,000 fr.; 2d, 6,000 fr.

Copenhagen, Stockholm, Munich, Dresden, and Frankfort, 8,000 fr.
Carlsruhe, Stuttgard, Florence, and Cassel, 6,000 fr.
Hanover, Hamburgh, Darmstadt, and Lucca, 5,000 fr.

All the secretaries of embassies and legations are boarded and lodged by the ambassadors.

Salaries of Consuls-General.

At the Havannah and Port au Prince, 50,000 fr. each.
Lima, 60,000 fr.
Santiago de Chili, 45,000 fr.
Washington, London, Smyrna, and Alexandria in Egypt, 30,000 fr. each.
Rio-Janeiro, Lisbon, Madrid, Amsterdam, St. Petersburgh, and Algiers, 24,000 fr. each.
Milan, Naples, Genoa, Tripoli in Barbary, 18,000 fr. each.
Tunis and Tangiers, 20,000 fr. each.
At Santa Fé de Bogota, Vera-Cruz, 3,000 fr. each.
Manilla and Bahia, 2,000 fr. each.
Pernambuco, Cadiz, New-York, Philadelphia, Charlestown, New-Orleans, Dublin, Warsaw, Bucharest, 18,000 fr. each.
Venice, Palermo, Corunna, Malaga, Rotterdam, Laenaca, Canée and St. Jean d'Acre, 12,000 fr. each.
Cayes (Hayti) 24,000 fr.
St. Louis de Maragnan, St. Andero, Alicant, Mahon, Civita-Vecchia, Cork, Nice, Cagliari, Patras, 10,000 fr. each.
Liverpool and Edinburgh, 17,400 fr. each.
Elsinor, Barcelona, Gibraltar, Malta, Corfu, Antwerp, Dantzic, Odessa, Tiflis, Gottenburgh, Leghorn, Salonica, Aleppo, 15,000 fr. each.
Santiago de Cuba and Porto-Rico, 16,000 fr. each.
Port-Maurice, Constantinople, Athens, and Bagdad, 6,000 fr. each.
The Dardanelles, Bona, and Bremen, 8,000 fr. each.

Salaries of Vice-Consuls.

At Norfolk (America), the Havannah, Buenos-Ayres, Port au Prince, Yassy, 10,000 fr. each.
Cape (Hayti), 15,000 fr.
Savannah, Zante, Stettin, Tripoli in Syria, 8,000 each.
Amsterdam, Lisbon, Riga, Rhodes, Alexandria in Egypt, Tunis, and Tangiers, 6,000 fr. each.
Milan and Genoa, 3,000 fr. each.
Tripoli in Barbary, 4,000 fr.
Santa Fé de Bogota, and Mexico, 2,000 fr. each.

Independent of the above salaries the consuls-general, consuls, and vice-consuls, have fees of office.

CIVIL LIST OF LOUIS-PHILIPPE I,

CHOSEN KING AT THE REVOLUTION OF 1830.

SINCE the preceding pages of this work have been put to press, the two Chambers have definitively fixed the allowance to the King and his family as follows:—Twelve millions to his Majesty; one million to his son, the duke of Orleans, and an additional million in the event of his marriage. Besides the fixed allowance, the King has also obtained the royal palaces of the Tuileries, the Louvre, Versailles, St.-Cloud, St.-Germain, Compiègne, and Fontainebleau. The revenues attached to them, especially to the last, are immense. The palace and forest of Rambouillet are not included, and now belong to the State.—When we consider that the Government of the Revolution of 1830 was to have been one "*à bon marché,*" the allowance to the *Citizen-King* is very handsome, especially as he has a very considerable *private fortune*.—We have in the preceding pages described the splendour of the court of Charles X, and the amount of what that charitable and kind-hearted monarch gave to distressed persons. All this does not now exist. The Court of Louis-Philippe is the same as it was when he was Duke of Orleans. He has no great officers of State, nor is he indeed surrounded "by the pomp and circumstance" of royalty; indeed, but few persons have been added to his establishment since his accession. It is true that his Majesty has more dinner parties, and gives more balls, than before he came to the throne, *voilà tout!* nor is he encumbered with a Pension-List as his predecessor was. Since the Revolution of 1830 the pensioners of that list, many of whom had nothing to depend on, but what they received from the royal bounty, have received the *enormous* sum of 250 fr., with a notice that that was all they had to expect, and to be paid in four quarterly payments; nor could they even receive that miserable pittance unless they were furnished with a certificate from the mayor of the district where

they reside, stating, "that they were fit objects for charity." A great number of them, poor and wretched as they are, would not expose themselves to such humiliation, and refused the *munificence* of the new Government.

To the court of Charles X, we ought to have added the *Caisse de Vétérance*, or superannuated fund for persons who had been attached to the court. This excellent fund was first established by Napoleon. The contributions for its support consisted, 1st. of 3 per cent. on the salaries of persons employed at court; 2d. of the produce of the sale of old furniture, etc., belonging to the royal palaces; 3d. one half per cent. on the amount of all tradesmen's bills who supplied the court. No one could claim a pension from this fund unless he had held his place during ten years. At the close of the reign of Charles X, this fund held in the 5 per cent. stock 176,000 fr. of rentes, or a capital of 3,520,000 fr. in the name of its commissioners, and not transferable. Now, will it be believed that Government has till now stopped the payment of these pensions, which however they can not appropriate to their own use, as the stock stands in the name of the commissioners. Besides, this fund is private property, inasmuch as persons contributed towards it, some from their income, and others from their profits! *Is this justice?* Nay, is it common honesty? The *Courrier Français* of the 27th February 1832, and even the *Journal des Débats* of the 6th February 1832, a ministerial paper, censured Government for this stretch of power, and unless it takes off the attachment, and pays the parties, its conduct must be characterised as a downright robbery. The fund itself cannot be kept up, as there are very few places now at court that can spare an annual deduction of 3 per cent, nor are the tradesmen's bills very considerable. Thus, on every side of the revolutionary picture, do we behold till now nothing but misery and distress. Those who have profited by the revolution are the proprietors of newspapers, and reading-rooms, which have considerably increased since 1830.

ROYAL MINTS.

There are in France 13 Royal Mints, viz. at Paris, Bordeaux, Bayonne, La Rochelle, Lille, Limoges, Lyons, Marseilles, Nantes, Perpignan, Rouen, Strasbourg, and Toulouse. Of these, only Paris, Lille, and Perpignan, coin gold. It appears by "the *Etat Général* of specie, that "the amount worked off from the 28th March 1803 till "the Restoration in 1814, was 528,024,440 fr. in gold, "and 887,829,055 fr. in silver, making the total amount "of specie with the effigy of Napoleon 1,415,853,495 fr." From 1814 till 1828, the amount of the coinage was 409,959,240 francs in gold of 20 and 40 fr. pieces, and in silver, bearing the effigy of Louis XVIII and Charles X, pieces of five francs down to five sous, the amount was 887,917,446 francs. Taking these amounts of this coinage as his data, the Minister of Finance in his "Report to the King" assumed, and it can only be an assumption, "that the total amount of specie in circulation on the "1st of January 1828, was 2,713,731,183 francs," which at the average exchange of 25 francs for a pound sterling, would be 108,550,000 *l.* sterling, which is about 713,731,183 francs more than was estimated before the Revolution of 1789. For, according to the authorities of M. Clavier, in his work entitled "*Opinion d'un Créancier de l'Etat,*" and of M. Arnould, in his "*Balance du Commerce,*" the gold and silver currency before the Revolution of 1789 was two milliards of francs (87,500,000*l.* st.). But the exportation of gold and silver having been allowed for the last seven years, it is impossible to come to any conclusion as to the exact amount of the coinage in circulation.

During the Republic, and down to the year 1803, pieces of five francs amounting to 106,237,255 fr. were coined, bearing the effigy of *Hercules*, and with the *exergue Union et Force*, some of which are still in circulation. Coins of ten centimes or two sous each,

amounting to 3,286,932 francs in bullion or mixed metal, were issued during Napoleon's Government with the initial N; as well as 175,133 francs in copper pieces of the same value. There are also still in circulation, particularly in the northern departments, a considerable quantity of the old *écus* of six francs, and the *demi-écus* of three francs, which bear a discount of four sous on each *écu*, but these are melted down as soon as they are taken to the Mint; as are also the five francs pieces of the Republic.

PROFITS OF THE MINT.

The operations of the Royal Mints are divided into three heads, viz :—

1. *Compte de Change.* Account of gold and silver received.

2. *Compte de Fabrication.* Ditto of expenses of coining.

3. *Compte en Espèces.* Ditto of specie coined.

The *Compte de Change* is an account of all gold or silver received from individuals to be converted into specie, deducting a charge for coining, and also an allowance for loss of weight in the operation. The charge on gold is 29 centimes for 100 francs, that is, 20 cent. for loss, and 9 cent. for coining; on silver 1 fr. 50 cent. for 100 francs, that is, 1 franc for coining, and 50 centimes for loss.

We find by the general account of the Administration of Finance for 1827, that the gross amount of gold and silver received from individuals to be coined, with the profits arising from melting the old coinage, amounted to 2,487,899 fr.

The sums in specie paid to individuals for their deposits in gold and silver, including expenses of recoining and salaries, amounted to	2,367,894 fr.
Leaving a balance of profit to the Royal Treasury of	120,005

The coinage of France, considered as bullion, may now be regarded as an article of commerce. The quantity remaining in circulation may be estimated by establishing a comparison between the relative amount of bullion exported and imported, which varies according to the price current of the precious metals, and the courses of exchange with other countries. We shall therefore give the rate of the imports and exports of gold during the ten years preceding the late Revolution.

	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1820 . .	109,872,796 fr.	. . . 89,742,053 fr.
1821 . .	126,311,000	. . . 176,694,082
1822 . .	185,961,210	. . . 56,468,976
1823 . .	200,531,428	. . . 106,498,106
1824 . .	244,282,108	. . . 83,191,840
1825 . .	251,424,068	. . . 134,648,066
1826 . .	173,477,051	. . . 174,642,151
1827 . .	68,869,081	. . . 31,471,931
1828 . .	208,101,075	. . . 28,571,562
1829 . .	148,475,281	. . . 58,574,584
1830 . .	220,947,754	. . . 59,597,474
	1,938,252,852 fr.	1,000,100,825 fr.

Making an excess in the imports of ingots and gold in specie in the last ten years, of 938,152,027 francs.

The following table, taken from official documents, shows the total amount of gold and silver imported and exported during the three years immediately preceding the Revolution of 1789.

	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1787 . .	80,853,000 fr.	. . 5,731,000 fr.
1788 . .	60,705,100	. . 1,103,000
1789 . .	59,951,000	. . 1,487,000
	201,509,100 fr.	8,321,000 fr.

Making an excess in the amount of imports in these three years of 193,188,100 fr.

BANK OF FRANCE.

In France there is only one privileged bank, and that is in Paris. The bank is independent of Government. In September 1803, it obtained its charter which was to expire in 1818. Its capital consisted in 67,900 shares at 1,000 fr. each, making a total of 67,900,000 fr. The charter was afterwards extended to the year 1845. The notes issued are of two kinds only, 1,000 fr. and 500 fr., of which the issues are by law unlimited. The bank is under the direction of a governor named by the King; his salary is 100,000 fr. a year. There are also two deputy governors and a general council of 18 directors. There is besides a separate council for the discount department, composed of 12 members chosen from among such of the shareholders as are merchants. The operations of the bank consist:

1. In discounting bills of exchange not exceeding three months' date, and bearing three separate indorsements of respectable persons not connected with each other. Nevertheless the Bank discounts bills which have two respectable indorsements only, provided a deposit be made in property of equal value.

2. It makes advances of money on Government securities.

3. It makes advances on deposits of bullion, or foreign coin, diamonds, shares in public companies, etc., etc., at the rate of one per cent. per annum. Not less than the value of 10,000 fr. is received as a deposit, and discount for 45 days is deducted from the amount of the sum advanced; nor if the deposit be redeemed the next day, is any part of the discount refunded. There are very few bank-notes in circulation in the departments, and those that are, if at any distance from Paris, pass at a discount of one and a half per cent., as they are not received in payment of taxes, or custom-house duties in sea-ports, so that remittances must be made in hard cash, for which a charge of five per cent. is made at the post-office. Even

the receivers of taxes in the departments are obliged to make their remittances to the Treasury in specie.

In the month of February, annually, a specific account of the operations of this establishment, during the previous year, is laid before a general meeting of the proprietors, and afterwards published in the *Moniteur* for the information of the public at large. From these statements it appears that the 67,900 actions or shares, into which the stock of the company is divided (each share having been originally worth 1,000 fr.) are held by a body of proprietors, whose number, by the subdivision of property arising from the operation of the existing law of succession, has been for several years in a state of gradual increase, varying from 3,386 in the year 1827, to 3,837 in the year 1832.

That branch of the business of the bank which consists in the discount of commercial bills has been greatly diminished since the period of the Revolution of 1830. It formerly varied from a hundred to six hundred millions per annum, and in 1830 had reached the amount of 617,493,733 fr., represented by 274,570 bills of exchange, the profit or discount on which amounted to 4,021,608 fr. In 1831, the commercial paper discounted did not exceed 222,523,869 fr., represented by 117,485 bills of exchange, the profit or discount on which amounted only to 1,845,710 fr.

The regular dividend which has been paid for many years on the shares of the bank has been 30 fr. half yearly, or at the rate of six per cent. per annum. The surplus profits, which have been for some time accumulating, have, on the reiterated demands of the shareholders, been put in a course of distribution. In the year 1831, two extra dividends of fifteen francs and six francs per share, besides two other payments under the name of a bonus of reserve, the one amounting to seven francs fifty centimes and the other to three francs per share, were paid to the proprietors. The balance of the reserved fund amounts at present to 9,974,398 fr., which would give a

further bonus of 146 fr. 95 cent. on each share. For the purpose of authorising the distribution of this surplus, a law was passed in the month of December 1831, under which a bonus of 145 fr. per share will soon be in a course of payment. By this new law the bank is bound to continue to hold a third part of its profits in reserve, after paying the regular dividend of six per cent. per annum.

The dishonoured bills remaining in the hands of the bank on the 1st of December 1831 amounted to

5,201,721 fr. 20 c.

This sum had been diminished by the payment of dividends to the amount of	1,113,424 fr. 1 c.
Leaving a balance of . . .	4,088,297 fr. 19 c.
As each bill bears the name of at least three separate obligants, it is estimated that the balance will be farther reduced by future dividends to the amount of	3,407,174 fr.
Leaving an ultimate loss of not more than	681,123 fr. 19 c.

The directors of the bank take great credit to themselves for the smallness of the amount of the deficiency which is thus to be carried to the account of profit and loss, by ascribing it to the indulgence shown by them to the debtors of the establishment during a period of great commercial distress. It is stated in the last report that the number and amount of the dishonoured bills have been for some time progressively diminishing, a circumstance which seems to be reasonably regarded as a sure indication that the trade of the country is gradually resuming its accustomed channels, and returning to a state of prosperity.

It appears, however, that during the year 1831 the bank of France had been extremely cautious in its discounts. At the commencement of the year the establishment was in possession of commercial bills to the amount

of seventy-five millions of francs; at the end of the first six months this amount had been gradually diminished to thirty-seven millions, and at the close of the year it did not exceed twenty-three millions, which was the greatest reduction it had experienced for 15 years before.

This diminution of discounts produced a natural and corresponding increase in the amount of the bullion in the coffers of the bank. At the beginning of the year 1831 the coined money and bullion amounted to 103 millions; on the 1st July it had reached 212 millions, and at the end of December amounted to 266 millions, which is the largest sum it had attained since the origin of the establishment. Of this sum no less than 26 millions consisted in crown and half-crown pieces of six livres and three livres each. As these are coins which have long been out of circulation in Paris, where they are only received at a considerable discount, it is probable that they have been drained out of the provinces by the operation of the system of excessive caution in regard to the discount of commercial bills which has latterly been pursued by the bank. These old coins were received at par, and were immediately sent to the Mint, whose bills at ten days date were taken for them, and discounted in favour of the parties who made the remittances.

In spite of these fluctuations in the business of the bank, arising from the diminution of discounts and the withdrawal of so large a portion of the coinage as a circulating medium, it does not appear that any corresponding change took place in the amount of the bank-notes in circulation. On the 1st of January 1831 the amount was 214 millions, on the 1st of July 218 millions, and at the end of December 239 millions.

A forgery on the bank, which in France is a rare occurrence, made its appearance in the course of the year 1831. It was discovered by the circumstance of four forged notes of 500 fr. each having been taken at the bank in payment, but as yet the authors of the forgery have escaped detection.

Since the Revolution of 1830, with the permission of Government, and under the protection of the bank of France, a separate establishment has been formed in Paris; the chief object of which is to assist the lower class of tradesmen and shopkeepers by discounting their bills, many of which do not amount individually to more than forty or fifty francs. The advances to this establishment are secured to the bank by the joint guarantee of the municipal council of the city of Paris and of the Minister of Finance. Its duration, however, is but temporary, and, if not again renewed, will expire at the end of the year 1832.

AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE.

France by nature is one of the most highly favoured countries in Europe; the soil in general is rich and fertile. The surface, however, is far from being in the complete state of cultivation that might be expected from the fineness of the climate and the natural fertility of the soil, as there is much land belonging to *communes* which, for want of funds, the difficulty of obtaining manure (arising from the want of a sufficient number of cattle), and various other causes, is left entirely waste. But as an agricultural and commercial nation, France can only be said to have come into existence since the Restoration.

France is watered by five large rivers, the basins of which form so many districts or divisions, each including several departments. The first is that of the Rhine, a part only of its basin being in France; the second, of the Seine; the third, of the Loire; the fourth, of the Garonne; and the fifth, of the Rhone. In addition to the foregoing principal rivers there are 109 streams of inferior magnitude, but also navigable, and communicating with the sea; besides 5,000 smaller water courses, and a great number of canals, the importance of which to the internal navigation and commerce of the country will hereafter be detailed.

Hitherto the high-roads of France have in many parts, especially at a distance from the metropolis, been in a dangerous state of dilapidation, although a charge appears annually in the Minister of the Interior's budget of upwards of 20 millions for keeping them in repair. We find, however, that a committee of inquiry has been lately appointed to regulate this important branch, so intimately connected with national prosperity, and it is to be hoped that their exertions will correct the neglect so long and so loudly complained of. As to the cross-roads, which ought to be kept in repair by the *communes*, they are almost

impassable at any time, and in bad weather entirely so; but this defect will no doubt soon be remedied.

The general productions of horticulture and agriculture in France are fruits and vegetables of all kinds, every description of corn, of which wheat is pre-eminent, and may be considered, in conjunction with her wines, as forming the basis of her territorial riches. The cultivation of hemp, flax, tobacco, oleagenous seeds, various dying plants, such as woad, madder, and saffron, is very extensive. Since the Revolution, beet-root has been cultivated to an extent sufficient to employ many thousands of workmen in extracting the saccharine matter it contains, which, after being properly refined, produces a quantity of sugar almost equal to the home consumption, and of a quality which rivals that imported from the West Indies. Hops are cultivated chiefly in those departments where beer is the ordinary beverage. France also produces from her immense forests an abundance of pitch, tar, and turpentine; her wax and honey are in high estimation. The great attention paid in the southern provinces to the breeding of silk-worms has become a source of great riches, and furnishes nearly half the supplies required by the manufactories. Of late years, the great improvement which has taken place in the agricultural system in France has introduced an abundant supply of artificial fodder for cattle, such as luzerne, vetches, clover, mangel worzel, etc. "Next to her harvests and the produce of her "vines," says the Count de Chaptal, Minister of the Interior from 1801 to 1807, in his excellent work entitled *De l'Industrie Française*, published in 1818, "the most im- "portant object for cultivation is wool, which is fur- "nished of a superior quality by many millions of Merino "sheep, which the indefatigable care and industry of "many opulent farmers have naturalised to the soil of "France. The indigenous breed has of late years been "greatly improved by crossing them with Spanish and "Leicestershire sheep; the average weight of their fleece "is 5 lbs." The *Royale Bergerie*, or sheep-park at Ram-

bouillet, has greatly contributed to accelerate this improvement, which renders the fine cloths of France unequalled by any country for delicacy of texture; and these advantages are enhanced by the superiority of their dyes, which, particularly in black, blue, and scarlet, are remarkable for their permanency. The introduction of the goats of Tibet and those of Cachemire is due to the exertions of M. Ternaux, a celebrated manufacturer of cachemire and superfine cloth (1). There is every appearance that in time this beautiful breed of animals will be accustomed to the climate of France. Of late years a great improvement has taken place in the horned cattle, which were formerly small and meagre, and those which are sent to Paris are now large and well fed. The heaviest, however, are brought from Germany in a lean state, and fattened in France. The greatest attention also has been paid to ameliorate the breed of horses, particularly those fit for military purposes. With this view many thousands have been imported by Government from England and Germany, as well as from Switzerland, to the amount of three millions of francs per annum. The best native horses in France for the saddle and for agriculture, or as draught horses, are those of Normandy, Flanders, Limousin, and Brittany. There are at present in France six Royal *haras* or studs, and 22 depots of stallions.

We have already remarked that the population of France is 32 millions. Count Chaptal states, in his work before alluded to, "on French Industry," that, in 1818, the superficies of France, exclusive of Corsica, was 52 millions of hectares, or 27,000 square leagues. That it then contained 3,000 rural habitations, including farms, country-houses, cottages, etc., and 2,431 millions of town-

(1) It is painful to observe that so useful a man as M. Ternaux should have been obliged, in consequence of the revolution, to suspend his operations; but then it must be kept in mind that he was himself a revolutionary dilletante.

houses, 76,000 mills, 35,000 manufactories, 16,000 forges, furnaces, kilns, etc. He next calculates the division of the soil, on data founded on the cadastral reports on one third of the superficies measured at the time he wrote, which, it must be remembered, is more than 14 years ago; since which period the population has increased a tenth, and agriculture and industry have advanced in proportion. His estimate is as follows in hectares, which is a measure equal to about two and a half acres.

22,818,000	Arable land.
3,525,000	Pasturage, etc.
3,488,000	Meadow land.
612,000	Copses and underwood.
460,000	Forest-trees.
1,977,000	Vineyards.
406,000	Chestnut-plantations.
359,000	Orchards.
328,000	Kitchen-gardens, etc.
186,000	Bogs, fens, and marshes.
60,000	Hop-grounds and flax-fields.
53,000	Osier-grounds, etc.
43,000	Olive-plantations.
16,000	Pleasure-grounds, parks, etc.
25,000	Nursery-grounds.
7,000	Peat-lands.
780,000	Under particular cultivation.
3,841,000	Sterile moors, heaths, landes, etc.
213,000	Fish-pools, lakes, etc.
28,000	Stone-quarries, etc.
6,550,000	Roads, streets, rocks, sterile mountains, and rivers.
213,000	Covered by buildings.

From the above statement it appears there was then in France only 45,446,000 hectares susceptible of cultivation, and upwards of 10,000,000, or nearly one fourth of the whole superficies of the country, which furnished nothing to agriculture. It must however be observed, that, since

the above was written, vast tracts of *landes* or wastes have been planted with firs and other resinous trees, and numerous bogs, marshes, etc., have been drained and rendered capable of culture.

The landed property appropriated to agriculture has been estimated at 32,940 millions of francs, and the live stock raised upon it at 1,581 millions of francs, which, with farming utensils, etc., at 1,000 francs for each farm, would represent an additional capital of 3,000 millions of francs, thus making the total estimated value applied to husbandry 37,522,061,476 fr., equal to 1,503,000,000 *l. st.* But even this sum, immense as it may appear, might be increased by a more enterprising spirit of cultivation. The rent or free produce of land in France has been estimated as follows:—In the north the average rent or produce of a hectare, or two and a half acres, is 60 fr.; in the south not more than 26 fr. 50 c.; and in the mountainous regions and the *Landes* it does not yield more than 6 fr.; while in the department of the Seine, in consequence of the dense population, the average rises to 216 francs.

From the foregoing statement, however, it may be seen that about half the soil is under cultivation, one eighth in woods and forests, one fifth in pasture, one fifteenth in meadow-lands, and one twenty second in vineyards.

The following estimates of the quantity, as well as the value, of the annual produce of husbandry and agriculture are taken from recent official documents furnished to the author of this work by the Minister of the Interior.

CEREALES OR GRAINS OF DIFFERENT KINDS.

	Annual Produce.	
Wheat	61,053,177	hecto.
Meslin	11,351,398	
Rye	26,722,151	
Barley	14,485,070	

Buck-wheat	6,126,734
Maize and millet	6,519,946
Oats	33,702,863
Dried beans, peas, etc.	2,262,082
Small grain	2,578.652
Tobacco	15,000,000 kilo.
Value	1,929,331,849 fr.
Wines, 56 millions of hectolitres	718,941,675
Wool	81,339,317
Silk-worms	15,442,827
Hemp	30,941,840
Flax	19,000,000
Timber, produce of 7 millions of hect.	175,000,000
Madder	4,000,000
Hops, woad, saffron, liquorice-root, etc.	1,700,000
Timber and scantlings	141,440,000
Different kinds of oil	70,000,000
Tobacco	7,000,000
Chesnuts	8,120,000
Value of brute produce of the soil (1)	3,202,257,508 fr.

(1) On this subject the celebrated Arthur Young, in his "Travels in France in 1789," makes the following estimates:—

Arable land	2,800,000,000 f.
Wine	875,000,000
Timber	384,000,000
Meadow and rich pasturage	500,000,000
Pastures and water	230,000,000
	4,789,000,000

On comparing this statement with what appears in the text, it will be seen that Mr. Young's estimate of the wealth and resources of France was excessively overrated.

Brought forward .	3,202,257,508 fr.
Animals for slaughter	447,005,000
Poultry of all kinds	64,700,000
Cows' milk	78,199,180
Ewes' milk	7,125,000
Wether sheep, etc.	8,250,000
Heifers	9,640,000
Bulls	12,500,000
Colts	17,372,900
Horse hides	770,000
Lambs	7,333,330
Bees	6,000,000
Fruits	64,620,000
Vegetables	196,806,000
Green forage	30,250,000
Dry forage	680,805,955
Fresh-water fish	20,000,000
Total amount of the annual produce of the soil, etc. . . .	4,853,628,873 fr.

Count Chaptal gives the following curious statement of the farming live stock in France in 1812; but, as he states in 1818, when he published his work, that the increase to that period was one third, we may infer that since 1818 it has increased one third in proportion.

1,404,671	Horses and mules.
465,946	Colts under four years old (1).
2,400,000	Asses.
214,131	Bulls.
1,701,740	Oxen.
3,909,959	Cows.
856,122	Heifers.
291,021	Calves.
35,188,900	Sheep.

(1) In 1828 it was ascertained that there were three millions of horses and mares in the country.

3,900,000 Pigs.
51,600,000 Head of poultry.
1,560,000,000 Eggs.

MINERAL PRODUCTIONS.

Many of the mountains of France contain abundance of copper, lead, iron, antimony, manganese, zinc, bismuth, minium, umber, white-lead, crystal, cobalt, arsenic, gypsum, asphaltus, silex, granite, porphyry, alabaster, precious stones, mill-stones, marbles, stones fit for sculpture, building, and lime-stone. France has also coal-mines, and others which produce an inferior small-coal for forges, called *houille;* sulphuric and vitriolic earth, which give rise to several mineral springs; also an abundance of fine clay for porcelaine, delft, crucibles, etc. Gold and silver are rarely found in a pure state in ore.

There is, however, a silver-mine at Allemont, in the department of the Isère, and a considerable quantity of this metal is elsewhere found mixed with lead ore, particularly in the mines of Giromagny, in the department of the Upper Rhine. The principal lead-mines are at Poullaouen and Huëlgouet, in the department of Finistère, St.-Julien and Goutte (Loire), Vienne and Allemont (Isère), Vialas (Lozère), and at Erlenbach (Lower-Rhine). These, besides furnishing a great quantity of silver mixed with the lead ore, produce sulphate of lead and litherage. Copper is found principally in the departments of the Upper Alps, Lower Pyrénées, Lower Rhine, and the Rhone. The richest copper-mines are those of St.-Bel and of Chessy, Baigory and Sainte-Marie-aux-Mines. There are no tin-mines in France that have been explored, though it is said some indications of the existence of this useful metal have lately been discovered in the departments of Upper Vienne and Finistère, but without any beneficial result. Antimony is principally found in the departments of Aude, Cantal, and Creuse. Manganese is found in various departments. The mine at

Romanechc, in the department of Saône-et-Loire, is said to be of sufficient magnitude to supply all Europe with that mineral for many centuries. Iron is found in almost every department, but not more than two thirds of the mines are worked, and the iron they produce is of a quality fit only for common purposes. But for manufactured steel goods, cutlery, and polished articles, large quantities are imported from England and Sweden. There are in France a vast number of mineral springs containing excellent medicinal qualities; 74 are cold, and 62 of a temperature from 10 to 60 degrees of Réaumur. There are also many saline springs as well as mines of rock-salt, vast quantities of this article are procured from the salt-marshes by evaporation.

MANUFACTURES AND INDUSTRY.

The principal manufactures of France may be dated from the reign of Louis XIV, whose Minister, the celebrated Colbert, invited foreign artists and artisans of every kind and of distinguished merit into the kingdom, and encouraged them by premiums to fix their establishments in France. But towards the end of his reign, that monarch, by his revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and his persecution of the Protestants, in a great measure destroyed the advantages arising from the foreign establishments, by forcing thousands of artisans to seek refuge in England and the Low-Countries, into which they introduced those branches of industry, especially silk. Thus France lost the services of some of her most ingenious mechanics through the folly of an infatuated monarch.

To give an idea of the manufactories of France, it is sufficient to cite the draperies of Louviers, Sedan, Elbeuf, Castres; the cambrics of Valenciennes and Cambray; the pier-glasses of St. Gobain, whose dimensions are occasionally 10 feet in height by 4 and 5 feet broad; the cotton manufactories of St. Quentin, Rouen, etc., etc.; the linens of Brittany, Dauphiny, and the northern provinces; the laces of Lille, Alençon, Valenciennes, and Puy; the silks of Lyons, Avignon, Nîmes, and Tours; the tapestries of the Gobelins, at Paris; the carpets of La Savonnerie and Aubusson, which in beauty of design and brilliancy of colours, rival those of the east; the porcelain of Sevres; her manufactories of clocks and watches, jewellery, crystal, mock diamonds, bronzes, fire-arms, etc. To these might be added an immense number of manufactories which were wholly unknown in France half a century ago, such as files, needles, wool-cards, etc.

We have learned from official sources, that the capital employed in manufactures amounts to 1,820,105,409 fr., which is applied as follows :—

In indigenous materials	416,000,000 fr.
In materials imported	186,000,000
In wages	844,000,000
In general expenses, as wear and tear of machinery and tools, repairs, fuel, lights, interest of money invested as fixed capital, which being deducted from the gross amount, leaves 182,105,409 fr. for the profit of the manufacturers	192,000,000

The annual produce of the principal branches of industry in 1828 has been calculated in round numbers as follows :—

Thrown silk, silk stuffs, gauzes and crapes	160,000,000 fr.
Cloths and woollen stuffs	250,000,000
Linen drapery and thread lace . . .	210,000,000
Stationary	25,000,000
Cotton	200,000,000
Lace	10,000,000
Hardware	125,000,000
Coal and other produce of mines and quarries	30,000,000
Watches and clocks	30,000,000
Gold and silver articles	50,000,000
Jewellery	40,000,000
Glass, plate glass, china, pottery, bricks	80,000,000
Lime and plaster	15,000,000
Salts and acids	30,000,000
Soap	30,000,000
Refined sugar	15,000,000
Hats	30,000,000
Leather	160,000,000
Dye and varnish	50,000,000
Perfumery	15,000,000
Books	30,000,000
Carry over,	1,585,000,000

Brought forward,	1,585,000,000 fr.
Beer	60,000,000
Cider and perry	50,000,000
Brandy	75,000,000
Upholstery and musical instruments	50,000,000
Total	1,820,000,000 fr.

Having enumerated the principal manufactures in France, we shall state from official information the progress made in the productions of those manufactories from 1812 to 1827. In the first place, we find that under the Government of the Empire, when Belgium and the left bank of the Rhine were under her dominion, France in 1812 employed in her manufactories 35 millions kilogrammes or 70 million lbs. of native wool. In 1816, the quantity of native wool, with the amount imported of foreign wool for fine cloths, merinos, and cachemires, etc., was in the whole 80 million French pounds, which, with the difference of nearly ten per cent. is equal to 90 million lbs. English. In 1824 and 1826, the quantity of wool used in the manufactories amounted to 48 millions of kilogrammes, making an increase in the consumption of wool, in 14 years, of 26 millions of French pounds, or more than one million English tods.

In 1812, the quantity of cotton spun into thread did not exceed 10,362,000 kilogrammes. The consumption in 1816 amounted to 12 millions of kilogrammes; in 1825, the quantity manufactured was 26 millions; in 1826, 32 million kilogrammes of cotton employed in prints, calicoes, tulles, etc.: thus the consumption has been more than tripled in 14 years. The consumption of silk has not less increased, in proportion to wool and cotton. In 1816, France imported 400,000 kilogrammes of silk; in 1824 and 1825, 650,000 kilogrammes; and in 1826, not less than 800,000 kilogrammes, notwithstanding the progress made and encouragement given to breeding of silk-worms in the country. In 1816, the quantity of coals extracted from the mines did not exceed 1,000

million kilogrammes; in 1826, they furnished 1,500 million kilogrammes. In 1814 and 1816, the quantity of iron manufactured amounted to 100 millions, and in 1825 and 1826, it had increased to 160 million of kilogrammes.

With respect to the precious metals, we find that the manufactures of articles in gold and silver had increased from 1818 to 1826, from 20 millions to 40 millions. In the former year the quantity employed in table services, etc., etc., etc., and jewellery, was as follows:—

	Gold	16,170 hectogrammes.
	Silver	381,134
In 1825,	Gold	41,078
	Silver	696,075

It is estimated that 150,000 watches are annually made in France, and about 200,000 are finished only, the movements of which are made in Switzerland, chiefly of gold (silver being out of fashion), and 350,000 clocks, in bronze, gilt, or alabaster cases.

Few families make use of any but silver spoons and forks at their table, nor are any other seen at coffee-houses and restaurateurs. This increase in the employment of gold and silver will not appear out of proportion with the increase of gold and silversmiths during the same period, which is from 8 to 11 thousand.

The Duke Decazes, during his administration, introduced the annual exhibition at Paris of objects of industry and manufactures. All parties agree that that highly talented statesman did a great deal to promote the industry and manufactures of France.

In the same period, the number of public vehicles registered by Government had increased in number from 6,670 to 14,255, which is more than double in 7 years. The stamp duties, which show in a great measure the progress of commercial transactions, have increased, from 1816 to 1828, from 25 millions to 28 millions.

The branches of industry connected with printing and

bookselling, have not less increased than the manufactures before alluded to, as will be seen by the following official statement of the late Count Daru, which indicates the number of sheets printed in France at four different periods, in various departments of literature.

	1812.	1814.	1820.	1826.
Theology	13,815,861	4,974,788	7,867,609	23,268,420
Legislation	7,833,205	1,371,568	6,326,652	18,605,495
Sciences	8,175,114	2,546,270	5,327,174	12,160,381
Philosophy	1,263,729	753,185	1,185,429	3,052,191
Domestic and Political Economy	1,340,993	1,634,485	1,744,246	2,097,390
Military Affairs	662,830	444,510	1,026,027	1,445,982
Fine Arts	1,218,496	773,099	1,202,599	1,999,560
Belles Lettres	15,755,904	13,352,920	20,436,803	27,704,971
Histories, Voyages, etc.	12,934,881	16,226,566	33,149,157	46,545,727
Miscellaneous Subjects, Almanacks, etc. .	9,079,629	3,600,648	2,121,261	7,699,977
	72,080,642	45,678,039	80,386,957	144,560,094

The above comparison of the number of sheets published in 1812 with those in 1826 is sufficient to show the progress France has made in literature and science, since her passage from a military to a Constitutional Government, as it will be seen that in 1826, when restricted within her ancient limits, she published double the number of works than when her Empire was the most extensive. Newspapers and magazines are not included in the above statement.

SHIPPING AND COMMERCE.

It appears from official documents that, previous to the Revolution of 1789, the balance of trade was always against France. But this is easily explained by the simple fact that, before that period, her manufactures were very inconsiderable. Her importations of woollens, cottons, linens, cutlery, hardware, etc., far exceeded the amount of her exports, which consisted of wines, oil, fruit, silks, etc. Her foreign trade, during the three years immediately preceding the Revolution of 1789, when she was in possession of many valuable colonies, all of which she lost during the war, and the most important of which have been permanently separated from the Government of the mother country, was as follows:—

Imports in 1787.

Merchandise		630,871,700 fr.
Gold and silver		80,853,100
		711,724,800 fr.

Exports in 1787.

Merchandise	444,611,000 fr.	
Gold and silver	5,731,000	
		450,342,000 fr.
Balance		261,382,800 fr.

Imports in 1788.

Merchandise	575,393,400 fr.	
Gold and silver	60,705,100	
		636,098,500 fr.

Exports in 1788.

Merchandise	463,156,700 fr.	
Gold and silver	1,103,700	
		464,260,400 fr.
Balance		171,838,100 fr.

Imports in 1789.

Merchandise	634,365,000 fr.
Gold and silver	59,951,000
	694,316,000 fr.

Exports in 1789.

Merchandise . .	438,477,000 fr.	
Gold and silver .	1,487,000	
		439,964,000 fr.
Balance		254,352,000 fr.

Having shown the state of her foreign trade at the epoch of the Revolution, we shall not follow the subject from that period until the Restoration in 1814, but proceed to show what it has been since 1820, at which period France had, in some measure, recovered from the paralyzing effects of a disastrous war, and the many impediments to speculative commerce necessarily experienced from an army of occupation. It must also be observed that, since the peace, manufactories of all kinds have been established in France, to an extent not only to provide for home consumption, but even to furnish a considerable exportation of surplus produce to foreign markets, and to her remaining colonies.

Imports in 1820.

(Including the colonial trade.)

Merchandise	363,139,363 fr.

Exports.

Merchandise	454,918,180
Balance	91,778,817
Gold and silver imported	109,872,796
Idem exported	89,742,053
Balance	20,130,743

Imports in 1821.

Merchandise	394,442,356 fr.

Exports.

Merchandise	404,764,582
Balance	10,322,226
Gold and silver imported	126,311,000
Idem exported	176,694,083
Balance	50,383,083

Imports in 1822.

Merchandise	426,179,193 fr.

Exports.

Idem	385,168,711
Balance	41,010,482
Gold and silver imported	185,961,273
Idem exported	56,468,974
Balance	129,492,299

Imports in 1823.

Merchandise	361,828,242 fr.

Exports.

Idem	390,754,431
Balance	28,926,189
Gold and silver imported	200,531,428
Idem exported	106,498,106
Balance	94,033,322

Imports in 1824.

Merchandise	454,861,597 fr.

Exports.

Idem	440,541,901
Balance	14,319,696

Gold and silver imported	244,282,108 fr.
Idem exported	83,191,840
Balance	161,090,268

1825.

Imports of merchandise	400,579,530 fr.
Exports of ditto	543,881,169
Balance	143,301,639
Gold and silver imported	251,424,068
exported	134,648,066
Balance	116,776,002

1826.

Imports of merchandise	436,116,472 fr.
Exports of ditto	461,027,171
Balance	24,910,699
Specie imported	173,477,053
exported	174,642,151
Balance against France	1,165,098

1827.

Imports of merchandise	414,137,001 fr.
Exports of ditto	506,823,737
Balance	92,686,736
Specie imported	68,869,018
exported	31,471,931
Balance	37,397,087

1828.

Imports of merchandise	453,760,337 fr.
Exports of ditto	511,215,922
Balance	57,455,585
Specie imported	208,101,075
exported	28,571,564
Balance	179,529,511

1829.

Imports	483,353,139 fr.
Exports	504,247,629
Balance	20,894,490
Specie imported	148,475,281
exported	58,574,581
Balance.	89,900,700

1830.

Imports	489,242,685 fr.
Exports	452,901,341
Balance	36,341,344
Specie imported	220,947,754
exported	59,597,474
Balance.	161,350,280

In 1829 the trade of France to her colonies stood thus :—

Imports.

East Indies	5,274,792 fr.
Bourbon	14,706,439
Senegal	3,070,758
Cayenne	2,881,335
Martinique	19,833,277
Guadaloupe	20,823,871
St. Pierre	668,433
Total	67,258,905 fr.

Exports.

East Indies	6,436 fr.
Bourbon	11,697,814
Senegal	4,121,075
Cayenne	1,768,771
Martinique	12,344,008
Guadaloupe	11,274,262
St. Pierre	359,392
Total	41,571,758 fr.

Independent of maritime commerce, the trade of France by land carriage is estimated on an average at two hundred millions of imports, and 160 millions of exports.

The principal imports of France are gold and silver in bars and ingots, diamonds and other precious stones, drugs of all kinds, live stock, oils, dying woods, raw silk, wool, tin, copper and iron, the productions of Italy, Spain, and the colonies, tobacco from Virginia, hardware from England, butter and salt provisions, bullocks, horns, etc., from Ireland; salt-butter, cheese, and spices from Holland; timber, pitch, grain, iron, wool, and leather, from Denmark, Sweden, and Norway.

Her principal exports are grain, wines, brandies, liqueurs, soap, candles, manufactured silk goods, wool, hemp, flax and cotton, gold and silver lace, tinsel-lace, watches, clocks, engravings, pottery, porcelain, pier-glasses, paper, books, hats, perfumery, sugar, colours, etc., etc. We find by the official return of the exports, that the drawbacks in 1827 were as follows :—

Cotton goods	765,358 fr.
Spun cotton	32,493
Linen goods	2,101,901
Mahogany goods	631
Soaps	870,442
Refined sugars	5,487,296
Melasses	636,361
Refined sulphur	21,595
Acids	23,079
Straw hats	150,884
Skins, tawed	43,448
Copper	2,772
Lead	13,173
Total	10,149,433 fr.

It will be seen by the above statement that the drawback on refined sugar exceeds one half of the total amount of drawbacks during the year 1827. The quantity im-

ported, we find, by the same return, to have been in 1827 as follows :—

Raw and clayed sugars from the French colonies 65,828,406 kilog., and from foreign countries 12,128,244 kilog., making in the whole 155,912,300 French pounds, valued at 47,629,546 francs. The quantity exported of refined sugars, on which the drawback was allowed, amounted to 18,460,914 lbs., valued at 9,980,264 francs. If we deduct this quantity from the total importation of sugar into France, there will remain only 137,451,386 lbs. of foreign sugar for the home consumption of 32 millions of inhabitants, which would be little more than 4 lbs. for each individual per annum. The very small proportion of sugar imported from foreign countries, in addition to what is supplied by the French colonies, can easily be accounted for, from the immense quantity extracted from *beet root*, which, as we have before observed, is nearly sufficient for home consumption.

The subjoined statement of the annual value of wines, brandies, and silk exports, is given on the authority of a speech delivered in the Chamber of Deputies by Count de Saint-Cricq, the Minister for Commerce and Manufactures, on 16th July 1828.

"I find," says the Minister, "on examining the accounts of our customs, that on an average France exports from 100 to 110 millions of silk goods annually, notwithstanding the excessive duties levied by England on the importation of that description of merchandise, which is almost equal to a prohibition, when in the United States of America the duty on manufactured silk is only 20 per cent., and they import on an average 40 millions a year. I have not been able to ascertain with exactitude the quantity of wines and brandy exported before the Revolution, but I can affirm that the statements drawn up for the Minister of the Interior for the years 1787, 1788, and 1789, fix the average value for those three years at 32 millions of francs for wines, and

11..

"17 millions for brandies exported. I find on opening "the custom-house accounts, that our export have "been increasing very considerably for the last 11 years "in those articles, viz.

"On the average for the years 1816, 1817, and 1818, "the value of wines exported was 34 millions and of "brandies 8 millions. For 1819, 1820, and 1821, the "average value was 44 millions in wines, and 17 millions "in brandy, and for the years 1822, 1823, and 1824, "wines, 41 millions; brandies, 22 millions; and, lastly, "for 1825, 1826, and 1827, wines, 48 millions; brandies, "20 millions of francs. The quantities of each were as "follows:—

Average of each year.

YEARS.			
1816, 1817, 1818	915,000	hectolitres	of wines.
	120,000	id.	of brandies.
1819, 1820, 1821	1,128,000	id.	of wines.
	213,000	id.	of brandies.
1822, 1823, 1824	1,056,000	id.	of wines.
	285,000	id.	of brandies.
1825, 1826, 1827	1,101,000	id.	of wines.
	242,000	id.	of brandies."

The amount of imports and exports will be found in the preceding pages. They are thus classed by M. de Saint-Cricq for 1827. Imports 417 millions, of which 280 millions in raw materials, and 95 millions in such as the soil of France does not produce, and only 41 millions in manufactured articles. Exports 503 millions, of which 154 millions in productions of the soil of France, and 346 millions in manufactured goods.

ENTREPOTS.

The *entrepôt réel* is analogous to our bonded warehouse. By a law passed in December 1831, authority was

given to the Government to establish such warehouses in Paris, Orleans, and other inland towns, and at Strasburgh, Metz, and other towns along the landward frontier. Before the enactment of this law, such warehouses had already been established in many of the principal sea-ports.

SHIPPING.

In the year 1822, a registry was first published and presented to the Chambers, of the number and tonnage of all French and foreign vessels entering and leaving the ports of France. The returns are as follows :—

In 1822.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
3,315 French	287,942 tons.
4,518 Foreign	420,810
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
3,479 French	282,358 tons.
6,052 Foreign	360,571

1823.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
2,738 French	247,540 tons.
3,984 Foreign	421,233
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
3,488 French	240,048 tons.
6,117 Foreign	396,310

1824.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
3,387 French	316,480 tons.
4,183 Foreign	438,005
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
3,955 French	325,698 tons.
6,338 Foreign	415,241

1825.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
3,387 French	329,735 tons.
3,218 Foreign	414,670
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
3,908 French	354,311 tons.
5,994 Foreign	399,440

1826.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
3,440 French	355,776 tons.
4,910 Foreign	543,682
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
3,580 French	355,742 tons.
4,408 Foreign	432,772

1827.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
3,350 French	353,102 tons.
4,439 Foreign	475,509
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
3,522 French	346,370 tons.
5,321 Foreign	439,842

1828.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
3,465 French	346,591 tons.
4,122 Foreign	445,708
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
3,341 French	376,835 tons.
4,164 Foreign	344,547

1829.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
3,048 French	331,049 tons.
4,342 Foreign	487,739
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
3,101 French	316,462 tons.
3,698 Foreign	311,286

1830.

Arrivals.	Tonnage.
3,236 French	340,171 tons.
4,257 Foreign	511,523
Cleared out.	**Tonnage.**
2,679 French	258,621 tons.
3,346 Foreign	268,524

In the course of 16 years, from 1814 to 1830, the shipping of France, has increased from a few half rotten ships unemployed, to 8,000 trading vessels, viz.—

At Bordeaux	210 vessels.
Havre	180
Marseilles	170
Saint-Malo	30
Dunkirk	25
Rouen	12
Dieppe	12
Caen	10
Cherbourg	10
Boulogne and Calais	10
Brest	9
Bayonne	8
Lorient	6
Cette	6
La Rochelle	4
Other ports	8

Total 820 trading vessels, on an average of 250 tons each, making in the whole 205,000 tons.

There are also 1,800 vessels trading to countries in Europe and to Newfoundland, of 250 tons each, making in all 270,000 tons, and 5,380 vessels employed in the coasting trade (petit cabotage) of 50 tons each, making in the whole 8,000 vessels measuring, nearly 744,000 tons, forming what may called her mercantile navy.

These vessels employ 57,200 seamen, distributed as follows:—

820	vessels with	crews of	15	men each 12,300
1,800	id.	id.	10	18,000
5,380	id.	id.	5	26,900

Which number, added to the seamen employed in ships of war, would raise the number engaged in the sea service to nearly 80,000 experienced seamen.

The vessels trading out of Europe are thus distributed :—

To India	35 merchantmen.
Islands of Bourbon and Maurice	70
South Seas	25
Brazil	65
River Plata	20
Mexico	40
Columbia	25
Island of Cuba	60
Haiti	60
United States of America . .	35
The West Indies (not belonging to France)	20
Cayenne	25
Senegal and Goree	40
Martinique and Guadaloupe .	300
Whale fishery	6
Circumnavigation by way of China	6
Total	832

These figures afford additional evidence of the progress which France was making towards a state of commercial prosperity anterior to the events of the late revolution.

From the best accounts it appears that the whole of the capital employed in trade and shipping, independent of manufactures, does not exceed two milliards of francs or about *l.* 80,000,000 sterling.

MARINE AND COLONIES.

STATE OF THE ROYAL NAVY IN 1831.

VAISSEAUX A FLOT (1) (AFLOAT.)	BUILDING.	TO BE PUT ON THE STOCKS IN 1832.
Ships of the line.	*Ships of the line.*	*Ships of the line.*
8 1st rate (2.)	3 1st rate.	1 1st rate.
0 2d ditto.	8 2d ditto.	1 2d ditto.
11 3d ditto.	8 3d ditto.	1 3d ditto.
16 4th ditto.	1 4th ditto.	3
35	20	
Frigates (3).	*Frigates.*	*Frigates.*
11 1st rate.	11 1st rate.	2 of 3d rate.
9 2d ditto.	13 2d ditto.	
20 3d ditto.	2 3d ditto.	
40	26	
Corvettes.	*Corvettes.*	*Corvettes.*
4 of 32 guns.	7 of 32 guns.	3 (32, 18, and 24 guns.)
4 28 ditto.		
5 24 ditto.		
1 20 ditto.		
9 18 ditto.		
23		
Brigs.	*Brigs.*	
17 of 20 ditto.	10 of 17 guns.	
12 16 to 18 ditto.		
16 14 ditto.		
3 12 ditto.		
3 6 ditto.		
6 8 ditto.		
57		
Bombs.		
8 of 10 guns.		
Galliots and Cutters.		
18 of 8 guns.		
11 4 ditto.		
12 steam-boats.	5 steam-boats.	5 steam-boats.
16 armed store ships.	9 store ships.	
32 armed transports.		
2 yachts.		
Total 264.	Total 77.	Total 13.

(1) "*A flot,*" or afloat, includes all vessels fit for sea, whether in commission or lying in ordinary.

(2) First rates are from 90 to 120 guns; 2d rate, 80 guns; 3d rate, 74 guns; 4th rate, 64 guns.

(3) First rate frigates carry 58 guns of 36 pounders; 2d rate, 60 guns of 30 pounders; and 3d rate 58 guns of 24 pounders.

MANNING OF THE NAVY.

The system established by the National Convention is that which still exists in France for the manning of the navy. Its leading provisions are as follows:—

Art. 1. A special register is kept, in which the name of every French citizen is inserted who is destined for the naval profession. Persons engaging in the sea service, either on board a ship of war, a merchantman, or even a fishing smack, are liable to the same conditions as to the station they assume at their entrance. From 10 to 15 years of age, they must be content to serve in the capacity of *mousse*, which is analogous to our swabber or cabin boy. Above 15, their station is a step higher, with the title of *novice*. Any *novice* or *mousse*, who has made a voyage of six months in either of these capacities, and has satisfactorily passed the required examination, may be employed as *aspirant*, or candidate for promotion. Every person, having completed his 18th year, who has made two long voyages, who has been 18 months at sea, who has been employed two years in the fisheries, or who has served two years as an apprentice on board any ship, is liable to the naval conscription. To this effect, he is required to present himself, with his father, if living, and two of his near relations or neighbours, at the Bureau of Inscriptions in his parish, where his name must be registered. There he is to be instructed in the laws and regulations which point out the rights and the duties of all registered seamen. Those who have attained the age, and have fulfilled any one of the conditions before mentioned, and who continue in the sea service as fishermen, merchant seamen, or otherwise, although they have not inscribed their names at the Office for that purpose, are nevertheless included in the naval conscription, they being considered as having tacitly given their consent by remaining in the sea service. Those included in the naval conscription are exempt from every other public service, except that of the Government naval service, employment

in marine arsenals, or as national guards in the quarter in which they reside. The names of all volunteer seamen are inscribed in a special register, and are employed in preference to the conscripts. Every volunteer seaman, and even *novice*, who has already made a voyage, and who desires to enter on board a ship of war, has a right to a bounty equal to one month's full pay. If the number of sailors registered as volunteers exceeds the contingent to be furnished by the parish to which they belong, those who stand first on the list are first employed. If the number of volunteers falls short of the contingent required, the deficiency is supplied by a draft from the register. Every maritime district is divided into quarters, and in every quarter the sailors are distributed into 4 classes.

The first class comprehends all the unmarried men;

The second, widowers without children;

The third, married men without children;

And the fourth is composed of married men with children.

The second class are not called on to serve until all in the first class are employed, and their numbers are found insufficient. The same rule applies to the third and fourth classes. In every quarter, the sailor who has served the shortest period on board a ship of war, is first called upon; and, where there is an equality of service, a preference is given to those who have first entered the service; they, however, have no claim whatever to the bounty granted to volunteers. Every seaman who has attained his 50th year is exempted from serving on board a King's ship or in the public arsenals, without losing the right to serve on board a trading vessel, or following the fishing trade. Every seaman, of whatever age, who chooses to quit the fishing trade or merchant service, may have his name erased from the naval register, one year after his having made a declaration to that effect, except in time of war, or when war shall have broken out before the year has expired. A seaman is at liberty to enter on

board a merchant ship or fishing boat, or he may remove into any port of France, by giving notice, and being inscribed in the muster-roll of seamen in the quarter he leaves, or in that to which he removes. By a law passed on the 7th of April 1832, the seamen regularly entered on board a ship engaged in the whale-fishery are exempted from the naval conscription.

The promotion of seamen depends on the length of service on board vessels belonging to the State, meritorious acts, etc. All registered seamen are bound to serve the State when called upon and ballotted for. All seamen (officers and sailors) are allowed pensions according to their rank, age, wounds, or infirmities. These pensions are of two kinds: the one consists of half the amount of their full pay, after 25 years actual service, either on board a King's ship, merchant vessel, or in an arsenal; the other is an allowance called *solde de retraite*, and is granted after 25 years service, in the royal navy, six of which must have been at sea. But in case of wounds, or the loss of an eye or limb, a fixed pension is granted according to rank, without taking into consideration the period of service.

The widows and children of seamen are entitled to an allowance upon the same scale as that granted to the widows and children of soldiers.

ÉQUIPAGES DE LIGNE.

The system of recruiting the navy having been found extremely defective, it was found necessary to adopt a more regular and permanent organisation of several of its branches. To effect this important amelioration, a royal ordonnance was promulgated, in 1823, for establishing a distinct body of seamen to serve on ship-board or in the naval arsenals, to be called *équipage de ligne*, and to supersede the body formerly known as the *fantassins de marine*, and at various periods under various names, such as, *les bataillons de marine*, *les équipages de haut-bord*, and finally by a recent ordonnance *des compagnies permanentes de la marine*.. The body is divided into se-

parate corps : each corps is composed of a permanent staff of 10 persons, and of four companies of 150 men each, viz :—

PERMANENT STAFF.

A *capitaine de frégate*, commander in the navy.
A clerk of musters (*commis aux revues*).
A 1st master of manœuvres.
A 1st master gunner.
A 1st master of the helm.
A *capitaine d'armes*.
A master carpenter.
A master caulker.
A master rigger.
A master gunsmith.

Each company is composed of :—

1 Lieutenant of the navy (*lieutenant de vaisseau*).
1 Sub-lieutenant.
1 2d Master of manœuvres to the 1st, 2d, and 3d companies.
1 Ditto Gunner to each company.
1 Ditto of the helm to the 3d and 4th companies.
1 Ditto carpenter to the 4th company.
1 Ditto caulker to the 2d company.
3 Mates to the 1st, 2d, and 4th companies, and 2 to the 3d.
4 Gunners' mates to each company.
1 Helmsman's mate to the 1st, 2d, and 3d companies.
1 Carpenter's mate to the 3d and 4th companies.
1 Caulker's mate to the 1st and 2d companies.
1 Rigger's mate to the 3d and 4th companies.
17 Seamen of the 1st class.
17 Ditto 2d class.
26 Ditto 3d class, and 26 apprentices.
1 Fifer and 2 drummers : making in all 430 men, the effective strength of each corps.

All the officers of the royal navy, from the rank of *enseigne de vaisseau* to that of *capitaine de frégate* inclusive, must be employed in the *équipage de ligne*, and serve

in it two years successively unless they receive orders to the contrary from the Minister of Marine. But on no account can the changes in the staff of the *équipages de ligne* affect more than one half the number of officers of each corps. Every seaman belonging to the *équipages de ligne* must be instructed and rendered fit to perform all duties whatever which relate to the manœuvring, piloting, serving at the guns, or repairing of a vessel, together with the manual exercise as a marine on ship board or in the naval arsenal. The men of the *équipages de ligne* are employed in all vessels from a ship of the line to a 16 gun-brig inclusive. When a corps of the *équipages de ligne* is embarked on board of different vessels, the detachments must never be less than one half of a company, and the number of officers and seamen required to complete the crews of those vessels must be furnished by the port in which they lie, from the ordinary maritime conscripts. Vessels under the rate of 16 guns are manned by conscript seamen only.

The recruiting of the *équipages de ligne* is effected either from the usual conscriptions or from voluntary enrolments. The non-commissioned officers and privates belonging to the *troupes de la marine*, or, marine corps of artillery, may be transferred into the *équipages de ligne*, provided they obtain the authority of the Minister. The officers and privates admitted into the *équipages de ligne* must be at least five feet five inches high, English measure, and a *mousse*, or cabin-boy, four feet ten and a half inches. The period of the engagement of a volunteer is eight years. Volunteers who neither belong to the maritime conscription nor to any other organised corps must be of the age of 21 years and a half complete. Mariners belonging to the conscription are not admitted into the *équipages de ligne* after they are 30 years old, or naval officers after 45, except by the special authority of the Minister. Youths under 18 years old, who wish to enrol themselves in the *équipages de ligne*, must present themselves before their prefect or sous-prefect, provided with a certificate of their birth, the consent in writing of their

father or guardian, or, if they have no guardian, of their nearest relatives, together with a certificate of good character by the mayor of their *communes*. Youths cannot enter into a regular engagement before they have attained their 18th year.

In every sea-port, the resort of ships of war, a general depot is established of the *équipages de ligne*, to which all who are destined to serve in them are sent. This depot is under the command of a post-captain in the royal navy, *capitaine de vaisseau*. On arriving at the depot, the men are formed into provisional companies as follows :—

1 Lieutenant.
1 Ensign.
2 Midshipmen.
2 Second masters of manœuvre and gunners.
2 Master's mates of ditto.
16 Seamen of all classes.
120 Apprentices.
2 Fifers and 2 drummers (as *mousses*).

The officers and masters are chosen from among those who are the most capable to teach the recruits their manœuvres, and the use of large and small arms.

To each company four schools are attached; one for the elementary mathematics, as applied to navigation, for the use of young officers; a second for reading, writing, and arithmetic, on the Madras system, or, as it is called in France, the system of mutual instruction; the third a fencing-school; and the fourth a swimming-school.

There is also in the navy one regiment of artillery composed of 24 companies of 100 men each, called *troupes de la marine*. These companies form a part of the port-garrisons. This corps costs the Government more than a million of francs annually.

A corps of engineers is likewise attached to the navy called *génie maritime;* detachments of this corps are stationed in the several sea-ports, and are principally employed in the superintendence of the dock-yards.

A LIST OF THE RATES OF FULL PAY OF THE OFFICERS, SEAMEN, ETC., ETC., IN THE ROYAL NAVY.

In every sea-port, the resort of ships of war, a maritime prefect is established, who is generally either a vice or rear-admiral. His functions correspond with those of port-admiral in England.

The maritime-prefects receive, when not employed at sea, 18,000 fr. per annum.

Vice-admiral 15,000 fr. per annum.

Rear-admiral (*contre-amiral*) 10,000 fr. per annum.

Post-captain (*capitaine de vaisseau* 1st class) 5,000 f. p. an.

Captain (idem 2d class) 4,500 fr. per annum.

Commander (*capitaine de frégate*) 3,500 fr. per annum.

1st Lieutenant (*lieutenant de vaisseau*) 2,000 fr. per ann.

2d Lieutenant (*enseigne*) 1,500 fr. per annum.

Mate (*élève* 1st class) 800 fr. per annum.

Midshipman (idem 2d class) and volunteers no pay.

But when at sea the officers receive a supplementary pay of one 5th of the above, besides a daily mess allowance, which varies according to the service or station on which they are employed; and the *élèves* of the 2d class and volunteers receive at the rate of 480 fr. a year. While at sea, the pay of warrant officers and seamen, with rations, is as follows; but they receive no pay when not on active service.

		Per diem. fr.	c.
1st *Maître de manœuvre*	1st class (1st master)	3	00
Idem	2d class (2d master)	2	70
Quartier-maître, idem,	1st class (1st mate)	1	40
Idem	2d class (2d mate)	1	20
1st *Maître d'état*, carpenter)	1st class (1st master-	2	70
Idem	2d class (2d master)	2	40
Quartier-maître d'état	1st class (1st mate)	1	30
Idem	2d class (2d mate)	1	10
Seamen	1st class	1	00
Idem	2d class		90
Idem	3d class		80

Landsman (*novice*) . . . . . 70 fr.
Cabin-boy (*mousse*) 60

The monthly pay of the *équipages de ligne* is as follows :—

		Gross pay with rations when at sea.	Nett pay with bread while on shore.
Master gunners and helmsmen . . .	1st class	90 f. 00 c.	87 f. 30 c.
Idem	2d class	81 00	78 57
Capitaines d'armes,	1st class	81 00	78 57
Idem	2d class	72 00	69 84
Master carpenters, caulkers, and sailmakers,	1st class	81 00	78 57
Idem	2d class	72 00	69 84
Master armourers,	1st class	60 00	58 20
Idem	2d class	54 00	52 38
Master tailors and shoemakers		21 65	21 00
1st Gunner's mates,	1st class	69 00	66 93
Idem	2d class	60 00	58 20
1st Carpenter's mate,	1st class	60 00	58 20
Idem	2d class	54 00	52 38
2d Gunner's mate,	1st class	42 00	40 74
Idem	2d class	36 00	34 94
2d Carpenter's mate,	1st class	39 00	37 83
Idem	2d class	33 00	32 01
Seamen . . .	1st class	30 00	29 10
Idem . . .	2d class	27 00	26 19
Idem . . .	3d class	24 00	23 28
Apprentices		21 65	21 00
Mousse (cabin-boy) . .		18 10	17 56

The conscript seamen who are temporarily employed in the *équipages de ligne*, independent of their pay according to the tariff, receive 35 centimes a day, as an allowance in lieu of rations, but this allowance ceases when they receive bread in kind. A deduction is made from the pay of the men belonging to the *équipages de ligne* for their ordinary rations, equal to what is paid by the

non-commissioned officers and privates of infantry on the same station.

The deduction made on account of clothing till paid for is as follows :—

	per month.
1st Masters, gunners, and masters of trades	10 fr. 00 c.
Master armourers and second masters of trades	9 fr. 00 c.
Gunners, mates, boatswains, seamen, and apprentices	8 fr. 33 c.
Cabin-boys	5 fr. 56 c.

From the pay of conscript seamen temporarily employed in the *équipages de ligne*, to whom a first outfit is not allowed :—

	per month.
First masters, etc.	14 fr. 00 c.
Master armourers, etc.	13 fr. 00 c.
Gunners, mates, etc.	12 fr. 00 c.
Cabin-boys	8 fr. 15 c.

It is necessary to add, that the pay and allowances of officers as well as men, and also all payments whatever made on account of the service of the navy, are subjected to a deduction of three per cent. for the support of the sick, and for granting pensions to naval invalids. There never has existed in France any special asylum for aged or invalid seamen, similar to Greenwich Hospital in England. It is true that naval invalids, after thirty years, effective service, when supplied with certificates of good character and supported by high interest, may be admitted into the *Hôtel des Invalides* at Paris; and it is also true that there are special hospitals for the *sick* belonging to the navy (while in service) in most of the great sea-ports, namely, at Brest, Toulon, Rochefort, Lorient, and Cherbourg.

MARINE SCHOOLS.

There are in France several marine schools for the instruction of youth for the navy. The most celebrated is at Angoulême, and known by the name of the Royal

Marine College of Angoulême. This establishment was founded in 1816 for the express purpose of educating a number of youths in the principles of navigation, the use of artillery, the military exercise, astronomy, mathematics, and other studies necessary to acquire an adequate knowledge of nautical affairs. The town of Angoulême, which is not a sea-port, but situated on a rock, on the banks of the river Charente, in the interior of the department, was chosen for the site of this naval college; an arrangement which was probably made out of compliment to the Duke of Angoulême, who, at that period, had just been created Lord High Admiral of France.

The governor of this college is a Rear-Admiral, who receives a salary of 12,000 fr. per annum; there are also 11 officers and 10 non-commissioned officers of artillery, and 10 professors and under masters, at various salaries. In addition to nautical instruction, the pupils are taught the *belles lettres*, geography, hydrography, drawing, and the English language.

The Minister of Marine has the superintendance of this establishment, and 150 scholars are admitted gratuitously. The expense to Government, according to the Minister's budget, is 62,000 fr. per annum. There is also in each of the principal ports a school called *Ecole de Médecine de la Marine*, where the science of medicine and the practice of surgery and pharmacy are taught. The students having finished their course, and satisfactorily passed their examinations, are embarked in their turn on board vessels belonging to the royal navy, or are employed in the marine hospitals at home or in the colonies.

There is at Brest a school called *Ecole Spéciale du Génie Maritime*, the pupils in which are chosen from those who have pursued their studies at least for two years, and satisfactorily passed their examination in the Polytechnic school at Paris. There are also gratuitous marine schools in almost every port in France; the expense of these establishments forms an item in the budget of the Minister of Marine of 170,000 fr.

BUDGET

OF THE MINISTER OF MARINE AND COLONIAL AFFAIRS FOR THE YEAR 1829.

EXPENDITURE.

Salary of the Minister . . .	150,000 fr.	
Ditto of directors, sub-directors, Chief and junior clerks, etc., in all 146 persons, including every sort of allowance	537,000	
Wages of 36 attendants, couriers, office keepers, messengers, etc.	39,000	
Office expenses and contingencies	134,000	
		860,000 fr.

Board of Admiralty.

Supplementary pay and allowances to 3 vice-admirals, 2 rear-admirals, 1 intendant and 1 commissary general of the navy (members of the board), a post captain as secretary, 2 clerks, and a messenger		17,600
(A vice-admiral presiding at the board receives his full pay as at sea, and 12,000 fr. as a supplement, which is equal to 15,000 fr. more than his home pay.)		
Carry over,		877,600 fr.

Brought forward,		877,600 fr.

Maritime Prefectures.

Fixed salaries of the prefects of marine at Brest, Toulon, Rochefort, Lorient, and Cherbourg, at 18,000 fr. each per annum	90,000 fr.	
Extra allowances	85,000	
	175,000	
Deduct the amount of the *navy pay* of 2 vice and 1 rear-admiral employed as prefects, but included in the list of officers	40,000	
		135,000

Pay of Officers ashore.

11 vice-admirals, 20 rear-admirals, 80 captains of 1st and 2d class of the line, 120 captains of frigates, 400 lieutenants of ships of the line, 500 enseignes, 225 élèves of 1st class, 75 idem of 2d class, 100 volunteers, including extra allowances and contingent expenses	2,941,525	
Expenses of the depot of maritime charts, plans, etc. .	119,102	
Pay and allowances to the effective strength of the *équipages de ligne* on shore, composing 12 companies, 5 general depots, etc., in all 6,139 men	2,920,242	
Carry over,	5,980,869	1,012,600

Brought forward,	5,980,869f.	1,012,600f.
Ditto of troupes de la marine, or marine corps of artillery, —effective strength, 2,120 officers and men	1,069,937	
Ditto of naval engineers, etc.	545,076	
Ditto of officers, etc., having the general charge and control of the commissariat . .	1,832,150	
Ditto of chaplains of the navy .	19,200	
Ditto of 10 officers of naval courts martial	21,400	
Ditto of medical staff of the navy	628,198	
Ditto of professors in the navigation schools	154,000	
Ditto of professors, etc., in the royal college of Angoulême	62,700	
Ditto of 338 persons employed in felling timber in French Guianne for the navy . .	391,020	
Ditto of 1,527 persons employed as store keepers, office keepers, porters, etc.	628,800	
Ditto of 1,215 officers of the hulks in different ports . .	387,976	
Ditto of 46 persons employed in the royal foundries and forges	70,550	
Total pay on shore		11,791,876

Pay at sea.

Pay of the general staff, composed of 16 officers . . .	126,895	
Carry over,	126,895	12,804,476

Brought forward,	126,895f.	12,804,476f.
Pay of the crew of one ship of the line, composed of 500 men	196,582 (1)	
Ditto of the crews of 127 vessels, etc., in all 12,410 men	6,093,323	
Expenses of clothing the *équipages de ligne,* ditto and fuel for the *troupes de la marine,* barracks, travelling expenses, reconnoitring the coast of France, pilotage, etc., etc.	1,447,000	
		7,863,800
Expense of marine hospitals for sick mariners		1,181,500
Ditto of provisions		6,834,500
Pay of workmen, expense of ship-building, materials, and artillery		23,621,300
Expenses of docks, etc.		3,800,000
Expenses of the *galley slaves*		312,400
Miscellaneous expenses		692,000
Expenses of the army and navy in the colonies		6,000,000
	Total	63,109,976

(1) It is necessary to observe that in the budget there is only one sail of the line charged for the year, as there are never more in commission at one time for a longer period, than is equal to the expense of one for a year.

COLONIES.

Formerly the expenses of the colonies, amounting to five millions of francs, besides the support of the army and navy employed there, were all borne by the Government; but by regulations made within the last few years, the colonies have been allowed the privilege of levying duties on imports and exports, as also of raising local taxes. When the receipts of these revenues are inadequate to meet the civil expenses of the islands (the Government still paying the army and navy), a supplementary grant to meet the deficiency is made by Government, which is taken from a fund called "*Rente de l'Inde.*"

France had lost her East Indian colonies in the American war of 1778. The treaty of peace in 1783 with England gave rise to many long discussions relative to their restoration, which at length were terminated by the convention of the 30th August 1787, stipulating that England should possess the exclusive faculty of making opium, on condition of delivering 300 cases annually to France at the cost price; that the exportation of saltpetre from France should be limited to 18,000 *maunds* of 72 English lbs. each; finally, that the exportation of salt from that country to Bengal should in future not exceed 200,000 *maunds* annually, and which should be delivered at 120 rupees the 100 maunds. The war between the two countries in 1793 put an end of course to this arrangement. At the peace of 1814, most of the French colonies were restored to France, but the express stipulations in the convention of 1787 not having been mentioned in article VIII of the treaty of 30th May 1814, the British Government refused to acknowledge them, on the plea that the latter treaty simply stipulated that "the subjects of his Most Christian Majesty shall enjoy the same "rights, privileges, and protection, as has hitherto or may "hereafter be granted to those of the most favoured "nations." The British Government also said, "It could

" not deliver, as was formerly done, the 300 cases of opium " at the cost price, for in that case Holland and Denmark " would claim a right to the same privileges as France; " and further, that such a concession would deprive the " English East India Company of a large portion of the " profits they now enjoyed, by having in their hands the " entire monopoly of opium; that such concession would " also open a road to smuggling the article into England at " a far inferior price than the Company then sold it at; " and that the monopoly of salt was in the hands of the " East India Company in the whole range of the British " dominion in India." At length these difficulties were got over by the convention of 7th March 1815, signed at London, between the Count de la Chastre and the Earl of Buckinghamshire, then President of the Board of Control, in which it was stipulated, "That France should " give up all claim to the 300 cases of opium, as before " mentioned, but should have the privilege of paying for " it at the average price of the sales made at Calcutta; " but that, in consideration of the privilege granted to " England by the French Government of delivering to " the English all the salt which should exceed the con- " sumption of the French establishments of Pondicherry, " Karakal, and Yanaon, at a fixed price, France should " receive annually from the East India Company, dating " from the 1st October 1814, the sum of four lacs of " Sicca rupees, which, calculated at 2 fr. 57 c. each, " amount to an annual revenue of 1,028,000 fr.; and " that France should preserve her right to export to Ben- " gal any quantity of saltpetre not exceeding 18,000 maunds " annually." The French Government have since discontinued making salt in India; and, on receiving a pecuniary gratuity, they now take their supplies from the English at the average cost price. The salt thus bought at cost price is re-sold on the account of France at the price of the Company's sales; the benefit resulting therefrom is about 111,814 fr. annually, which is applied to the expenses of the French colonies. The French Government

also contracts with persons who have the privilege of buying opium at the average market price at Calcutta, who pay a premium for such privilege; and the produce of this, with the annual grant above alluded to, forms the "*Rente de l'Inde.*"

The following are the colonies ceded to France at the Restoration of the Bourbons in 1814, viz. :—

Martinique; Guadaloupe; Cayenne; Senegal; Bourbon; Surat; Mahé, on the coast of Malabar; Pondicherry, Karakal, and Genjam, on the coast of Coromandel; and Chandernagore in the province of Bengal.

The whole effective strength sent to the colonies from France, and paid by Government, amounts to about 7,000 men. In addition to which there are the following militia or colonial regiments, viz. :—

At Martinique . .	3,660 Infantry, and	443 Cavalry.
Guadaloupe . .	3,199 Ditto	644 Ditto.
Bourbon . . .	4,837 Ditto	70 Ditto.
Cayenne . . .	732 Ditto	

The militia regiments (partly whites and partly blacks) are paid by the Colonial Governments.

COLONIAL BUDGET

FOR THE YEAR 1829.

RECEIPTS.

From the *rente de l'Inde*, and from a fund held in reserve for contingent expenses	1,040,000 fr.

LOCAL REVENUES.

Direct Taxes.

A poll tax paid for slaves, workmen, and servants; fixed tax on exports of sugar and coffee, called *grande culture*; tax on houses, licences, etc., ...	2,937,761
Carry over,	3,977,761

Brought forward,	3,977,761 fr.
Indirect Taxes.	
Customs, licences to hawkers and publicans, duty on slaughter-houses, licence to carry arms, registering deeds, etc., stamps, tobacco licence, postage of letters, duties on liquids	3,567,467
Monopoly of public auctions, guaging vessels, fees, land-tax, rents for houses and farms, strays and confiscations, duty on coining money	960,035
Extraordinary Receipts.	
Tax on the emancipation of slaves, and miscellaneous receipts	96,969
Total annual receipts	8,602,232

EXPENSES.

Salaries of public functionaries, militia, office-charges, and other contingent expenses	3,680,132
Public works, etc., etc.	2,226,058
Hospitals	274,196
Victualling department	378,244
For rent of buildings for the public service, expense of water and land carriage, support of prisoners, printing advertisements, exhibitions to colleges and schools, pensions and public charities, expense of the seminary of *Saint-Esprit* for females, and various contingencies	1,489,601
Sum appropriated to form a reserve fund for unforeseen local expenses . . .	404,000
Total expenditure . . .	8,452,231

JUDGES AND COURTS OF JUSTICE.

Hume very properly observes, in his *Essay on the Origin of Government*, "that we ought to look upon "the vast apparatus of Government as having ultimately "no other object or purpose but the distribution of "justice, or, in other words, the support of the twelve "judges."

The above sentence comprehends a great deal; for, without the due administration of justice, the integrity and the incorruptibility of the judges, the basis of society can never be considered as firmly established. The present judicial order in France, although composed of many learned and upright men, is far from being so dignified as the state of society requires, owing doubtless to the smallness of their salaries.

Before the first Revolution, the office of judge was purchased by the most respectable persons in France; for the discharge of its functions they received no remuneration whatever.

The courts of law at that period were the *baillages* and *sénéchaussées*. The *baillages*, which since the Revolution bear the name of *tribunaux de première instance*, tried civil as well as criminal causes. There was an appeal to the *sénéchaussées*, now called *cours royales*. These courts were nevertheless competent to try civil or criminal cases in the first instance in their own right. From the courts of the *sénéchaussées* there was an appeal to the council of state, which however very seldom occurred. The *sénéchaussées* were also called *les parlemens*. No taxes could be raised unless they were sanctioned and approved of by these courts.

The Revolution, however, produced many changes in the civil and criminal codes, in the organisation of the courts of law, and in the composition of its members.

All the judges who had purchased their places under

the old *régime* were not only dismissed at the Revolution, but they were robbed of the purchase money also; nor did the new Government even allow them the 4 per cent. interest which they got from the old Government. The judges, after the Revolution, were appointed by *the people*, that is to say, by the electors who voted for the members of the Legislative Body. From 1790 till the accession of Bonaparte, the electors also chose the "*Administrateurs des départemens*," which, on the establishment of the Consular Government, were called *préfets*, and who were appointed by the First Consul.

The civil courts alone were open to the public before the Revolution; all criminal cases were tried with closed doors "*huis clos*," trial by jury not having then been established. This great security for personal freedom was introduced at the Revolution, but in criminal cases only, and the courts were from that period open to the public. During the whole progress however of the Revolution, until the restoration of the Bourbons, the ephemeral Governments, as they arose, paid but little attention either to judges or juries. The judicial maxim in England is "*Nihil potest Rex, quam quod de jure potest.*" The Revolutionary tyrants, from Robespierre down to Bonaparte, had another maxim,— "*Sic volo, sic jubeo, stet pro ratione voluntas.*"

Whenever any of these Governments had determined to sacrifice their victims, they had them tried by courts-martial, or by judges only on whom they could depend, which courts were called "*tribunaux spéciaux.*" In some instances, persons were transported beyond seas without any trial. For example, the National Convention, about three months after the 9th Thermidor, thought proper to accuse Barrère, Collot d'Herbois, and Billaud de Varennes, of having participated in the crimes of Robespierre and his associates. Some of these had committed suicide to escape the guillotine, but all the others were regularly tried by the revolutionary tribunal; witnesses were examined, counsel heard, etc.: but, in re-

gard to the above named three persons, they were not even allowed the *form* of trial; the Convention however sentenced them to be transported for life to Cayenne. Of these three persons, the celebrated Barrère is still living (1832) in the full enjoyment of all his faculties. He escaped from prison, and never reached Cayenne: Collot died there, and Billaud obtained his liberty on the accession of Bonaparte to the Consulate. From Cayenne, Billaud went to St. Domingo on a visit to his friend Pethion, then President of the Republic at Port-au-Prince. He afterwards went to *Porto-Rico*, where he entered into the religious order of the *Jacobins*, under the name of *Padre Varenas*, and remained about eighteen months. The Spanish Government having ordered a certain number of this fraternity to be sent to Mexico, Billaud was of the party. Of course, his real name and character were not known to any one in *Porto-Rico* nor in Mexico. After a residence of six years in Mexico, not being able to forget his old practices, he entered into a conspiracy which had broken out there against Spain, in 1810, at the head of which was a General Hidalgo. Billaud was arrested and confined a year in a fortress, from which he escaped. He arrived at New-York in 1811, and died there in 1816. He had written an interesting work called "*Mémoires sur le Mexique.*" In 1817 after his death, it was printed at Paris, by a friend to whom he confided his MS.; but, strange to say, the entire edition was seized by the police! The wife of Billaud and the sister of Robespierre received each 6,000 fr. pension from Bonaparte's privy purse; this was continued till the Revolution of 1830. I do not know if these pensions have been continued by King Louis-Philippe.

The Executive Directory proceeded on a similar plan. In its message to the two Councils, on the memorable 18th *Fructidor*, it unblushingly declared "that the reason "they sent the *conspirators* (in which were included two "of their colleagues, Carnot and Barthelemy, and several "worthy members of both chambers) to Cayenne, *with-*

"*out a trial*, was, that they *could not depend upon a jury* "that would convict them!"

In the time of the Directory, it frequently occurred that persons were tried by courts martial for offences of a political or at least not of a military nature. Two agents of Louis XVIII, who were suspected of political intrigues, M. de Villeheurnois (formerly a member of one of the provincial parliaments), and the abbé Brotier, were arrested and sent, not before an ordinary tribunal to be tried by a jury, but before a court martial, who sentenced them to *one year's imprisonment*. As they happened to be confined in the same chamber with a person sentenced to be transported to Cayenne, they were taken away with him (in violation of their sentence) to that inhospitable country, where they both died.

A deed of equal atrocity was committed during the reign of Bonaparte. In the affair of Mallet, an unfortunate Corsican, named Joseph Louis Bocchecampe, had been ten years a prisoner of state. Having been confined in the same prison with Guidal, one of the accomplices of Mallet, he quitted the prison with him; indeed the prison doors were thrown open to all confined there. As soon as it was known that Mallet and his associates had been arrested, the unfortunate Bocchecampe surrendered himself to the police, declaring, what was strictly true, that he was ignorant of the conspiracy, and that he quitted the prison because the doors were left open. He was however tried as an accomplice of Mallet, convicted and executed; whereas Colonel Rabbé, who was also convicted as a conspirator with Mallet, was respited by order of the Minister of War, the Duke de Feltre, on account of his having been one of the judges of the Duke d'Enghien. Bonaparte, who was on his return from Moscow when this conspiracy was detected, on his arrival at Paris, granted a free pardon to Rabbé.

During the Directory, the majority of the judges, from the mediocrity alike of their salaries and their character, were *très déconsidérés*. We recollect reading in the Paris

papers of that time, an account of a trial of a common thief, who, when interrogated by the judge (Gohier, afterwards a member of the Directory) always replied "*Oui, citoyen collègue,*" or "*Non, citoyen collègue;*" and when asked what he had to say in his defence, replied, "*Je suis voleur, tu es voleur, il est voleur, nous sommes voleurs, vous êtes tous des voleurs!*" The *criminal* was no bad *judge* in this instance.—A president of the criminal court of Paris told me that he once went to Melun (a short distance from Paris) to officiate for the judge of the criminal court of that town, who was ill. He tried a notorious offender: the man was however acquitted, and when the president stepped into the diligence to return to Paris, he found that the acquitted robber had taken his place in the same vehicle, and they travelled together *nez-à-nez* to town, the thief offering to treat the judge on the road.

When, however, the great regenerator Napoleon had assumed the reins of Government, a better system in the judicial order was expected; the Codes produced under his Government do certainly great honour to those who framed them, viz. *the arch-chancellor Cambacérès,* and the counsellors of state *Regnault de St. Jean d'Angely, Réal, Bigot de Préameneu, Portalis, Tronchet, Malleville, Treilhard, etc.*

These Codes, however, in many instances, were shelved, and became mere waste paper. The day after Bonaparte assumed the reins of Government, 300 persons, all republicans, were, by a simple *arrêté* of the three Consuls, condemned to transportation for life. Some were sent to Madagascar, some disappeared on their passage, and some were sent to Oleron! A *bright prospect* truly for the friends of liberty!

In the early part of Napoleon's supremacy, those who were said to conspire against his Government, such as *Arena* (1), *Ceracchi, Diana, Topino le Brun, etc.*, ac-

(1) There were two brothers of that name, cousins of Bonaparte;

cused of an attempt to murder him at the Opera, and *St. Régent,* the chief of the *infernal machine* plot were regularly tried by a jury. This appearance of moderation and love of justice, however, did not last long. Soon after these trials, the Marquis de Rivarol was tried at Brest, on a charge of being a spy of the English Government, and was honourably acquitted. So enraged, however, was Bonaparte, when he heard of this verdict, that he immediately ordered the Marquis, as well as all the judges who tried him, to be arrested and sent to Paris, and they were accordingly lodged in the Temple. The former has never since been heard of; and the latter, after twelve months' incarceration, were exiled to the island of Oleron!

It being found that the criminal courts in the departments were not disposed to condemn persons against whom no crime was clearly proved, a new law was made by the Senate for the organization of special tribunals; these were composed of judges only, who were to try state prisoners without a jury. These judges were selected by Bonaparte in the same manner as those of the revolutionary tribunals were by Robespierre. It appears, by an *exposé,* presented by the counsellor of state *Thibaudeau* to the Legislative Body, on the 23d November 1801, and published in the *Moniteur* the following day, "*that no less than 724 persons were condemned by these newly formed tribunals in the short space of five months!*

On the trial of Georges, Moreau, and others, the usual course was deviated from. They were tried, not by a jury, but by a court consisting of 13 judges of the Criminal Court of Paris, who acted as judges and jury. There were, how-

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one was a general in the French army, and commenced his military career with Bonaparte at Toulon, and had a seat in the Council of Five Hundred; he was accused of an attempt to assassinate Napoleon in the hall in which that body held its sittings, on the 18th Brumaire; in consequence of this false accusation he was exiled, and has never since been heard of. The other brother, implicated in the Opera House plot, was executed!

ever, among this number five honourable men, who were convinced of Moreau's innocence, and would not convict him of a capital offence : he therefore, through their integrity and perseverance, escaped the *ultimum supplicium !* The five honest judges. viz, Martineau, (vice-president), Le Courbe, Bourguignon, Rigal, and Selves, were in the course of a few years after removed from the Bench.

The following last act of Napoleon's arbitrary power in 1813 deserves a place here. Four persons employed in the *octroi* of Antwerp, named Werbrouck, La Coste, Biard, and Petit, accused of malversation in the discharge of their duty, were brought to trial before the criminal court of that city : after a strict examination of evidence, not the least proof of guilt being adduced, they were all acquitted. Upon hearing this decision of the jury, Bonaparte ordered *his* Senate to pass a *senatus consulte* to the following effect :—"That the order of acquittal of the accused as before named, pronounced by the Court of "Assize at Antwerp, be annulled; and that in consequence the Court of Cassation be charged to send the "said accused before another Imperial court, there to be "tried for the said charge of connivance or malversation, "but *without a jury*" (1). It was Boulay de la Meurthe, conseiller d'état, who conveyed the message to the Senate, observing that the Emperor was the *loi vivante!* Yet M. Boulay offered himself to the electors of Paris in 1828, as a *liberal* candidate for the Chamber of Deputies!

COURTS MARTIAL (*Commissions militaires*).

Before the Revolution of 1789, none but the military were tried by these courts. The Directory and Napoleon, however, thought them more expeditious than the civil

(1) See *Bulletin des lois*, n°. 519, 28th August 1813. The decree was countersigned by the Grand Judge Minister of Justice.

courts and juries. The *commissions militaires* were all composed of military men : a president, 12 members, and the judge advocate also. No Inquisition of Spain or of Rome, no Revolutionary tribunal of Robespierre could be compared to them; for even in these counsel was allowed, and witnesses examined in behalf of the accused, and *some* escaped. But *no one* ever escaped from *Napoleon's commissions militaires.* The accused were dragged before this sanguinary court, without even knowing the nature of the charges against them; no counsel was allowed to them; the charges were read; the prisoner retired while the judges deliberated; and, on being called in, sentence of death was read to them. There being no appeal from these courts, they were then marched off immediately and shot! The death of the Duke d'Enghien, who was tried by one of these tribunals, shows their summary mode of proceeding. This prince, had he been arrested on the French territory, might have been tried with at least some appearance of justice, although the Duke de Rovigo (Savary), who was an unwilling instrument in that sanguinary affair, asserted in a pamphlet, which he published in 1828, "*that there existed no shadow of evidence against the prince either oral or in writing.*" Had he indeed been guilty, as it was pretended, why not have given him a fair trial, and have allowed counsel (1)? On the second Restoration of the Bourbons, those men who voted for the death of Louis XVI were exiled, whereas the mock judges of the Duke d'Enghien were allowed to remain unmolested in Paris. Since the

(1) We think proper here to state a circumstance which has never yet appeared in print. On the trial of Arena, etc., a witness of the name of *Harel* appeared against the prisoners, who was a police spy. This man was afterwards the *concierge* of Vincennes when the unfortunate duke d'Enghien was barbarously shot. Bonaparte knew how to reward his *seides*. It is singular enough that this *Harel* and his wife had formerly lived servants with the *Prince of Condé*, the grandfather of the victim !

Restoration, none but military men were tried by court martial.

We have already remarked that the Revolution produced a great change in the judicial order of France. It was not until Bonaparte seized the reins of Government that the judges were appointed for life, but he regarded his decrees as mere waste paper. In the *Moniteur* of the 15th April 1808, a decree appeared, by which 120 judges were dismissed. Some of the most respectable and able men were of that number, in which was included M. Bexon, president of the *tribunal de première instance* of Paris, who was called *le petit Montesquiou*, on account of his profound knowledge of law (1). He had written a code of criminal law for the King of Bavaria, and one for Louis Bonaparte when he was King of Holland. His crime consisted in having written a work extolling the criminal law of England. This gentleman had been a judge for thirty years: on entering into the court the last day he had to sit, the clerk of the court asked him if he had read the *Moniteur* of the day, to which he replied in the negative, "*Then,*" said the clerk, "*I must tell you, that you can no longer preside, as you are dismissed.*" Thus was the foulest injustice aggravated by the most cruel insult. The poor old man fainted, and was carried out of court. But the malignity of Bonaparte did not end here; for, knowing that M. Bexon had received a decoration of an order of knighthood from the King of Bavaria, his *minion*, he wrote to the vassal King, insisting on his writing to M. Bexon, to desire him not to wear the insignia in future, as he was erased from the list of the knights of that order.

On the Restoration of the Bourbons, measures were taken to make the members of the courts of law as respectable as possible. The judges were appointed for

(1) Some of his publications were honourably noticed in the *Edinburgh Review* for October 1809.

life (1); their salaries, however, could not be increased, in consequence of the greatness of their number. When we reflect upon the degraded state in which these magistrates were kept during the whole course of the Revolution, one would naturally suppose that they would now be sensible of the great importance of their situation, and the true dignity of their office. From such fineness of tact and delicacy of conduct, truth obliges us to say that in many instances some of them have widely departed. In England, no judge ever thinks of entering into political squabbles, nor can he well do so, for the English judges are not, like those of France, members of the lower house of Parliament. Thus, we have seen a judge of one of the supreme courts of Paris writing libellous pamphlets, and even daring to call the Ministers of his sovereign Charles X "*a felonious ministry*." What would be said of an English judge degrading his high functions by descending to the level of a miserable pamphleteer, and calling the high chancellor of England a member of a "*felonious ministry?*" Another instance of this confusion of character also occurred in 1828. A judge of one of the supreme courts of Paris pronounced an inflammatory harangue over the grave of Manuel, a man who had been expelled the Chamber of Deputies, for having made use of treasonable language towards the Royal Family.

All this was known to the late Government. Still no attempt was made to remove these seditious judges, who were fitter objects for the *bar* than the bench.

Since the Revolution of 1830, a judge of the *cour royale* was publicly charged, not by an enemy but by a friend, of having belonged to a society in Paris called the French Carbonari, the object of which was to subvert the Government of the Bourbons!

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(1) There has been no instance of an infringement of this law since the Restoration of the Bourbons, although several judges have merited impeachment.

LAW COURTS.

TRIBUNALS OF FIRST INSTANCE.

There are in France 361 *tribunaux de première instance*, where minor criminal offences (called *correctionnel*), and civil causes are tried in the first instance, but *without a jury*. Cases of libel were also formerly tried by these tribunals.

The number of judges in these courts is according to the population of the town in which they are held. In Paris the number of judges of the *tribunal de première instance* is 34, besides the president or chief justice, and 6 vice-presidents. In some towns, however, there are only 4 judges and a chief. These tribunals are divided into sections, in each of which the president or vice-president presides. To each section, a "procureur du roi," (King's advocate) is attached. The business of these courts is divided between civil and correctional causes. These, like the *cours royales*, sit every day in the year, Sundays excepted, from 10 in the morning till 4 in the afternoon. There is, however, a vacation of six weeks in the summer season. The number of judges of these *tribunaux de première instance* is 1,626. Most of the presidents receive a salary of 1,875 fr. (75*l.* sterling) per annum, but there are some who, according to the population of the towns, receive 6,000 fr. per annum. The salary of the president of this tribunal in Paris is 16,000 fr.; and the judges 6,000 fr. a year; but in the departments in general, the greater number are paid only from 1,250 to 1,600 fr. a year, though, in a few of the large towns, they receive from 1,800 fr. to 3,000 fr., in proportion to the population.

From these courts, the parties in all correctional causes have it in their power to appeal. If the cause has been tried in an *arrondissement*, the appeal is made to the *tribunal de première instance* in the chief town of the de-

partment. If the cause has been tried in the chief town of the department, the appeal is made to the *cour royale*. But in all civil causes the appeal is made to the *cour royale*.

COURS ROYALES.

These are courts of appeal (as we have before observed) from the *tribunaux de première instance* of the *chefs-lieux*. They are 27 in number, and the jurisdiction of some of them extends to three or four departments. These courts are composed of 27 first presidents, 93 presidents, 630 judges, and 166 assistant judges. The number of judges in each of these courts is according to the extent of their jurisdiction. The first presidents of Paris are paid 36,000 fr. a year. In five other cities of the first order, they are paid annually from 20 to 25,000 fr., but their salary is in general 15,000 fr. In Paris, the judges of this court are paid 8,000 fr.; in the departments, they are paid from 3,000 fr. (and these are the majority) to 4,200 fr., and, in some few courts, they are paid only 2,500 fr. a year. The presidents are paid a fourth more than the judges. In the *tribunaux de première instance*, and in the *cours royales*, there are assistant judges. In the former, they are called *juges suppléans*, and they are entitled to receive half the salary of the judge for whom they officiate in case of illness. In the *cours royales*, these assistants are called *conseillers auditeurs*. They receive a fixed salary, which is, however, very trifling; the maximum is 2,000 fr., and the minimum 500 fr., but they seldom officiate. These places are virtually suppressed, as no new appointments are to be made when these auditors die, or are compelled to retire from illness. In every *cour royale* there is also an attorney-general, an advocate-general, and one or more substitutes. The first are paid the same as the first president of the court they belong to, the second the same as a president, and the substitutes as the judges.

COURT OF CASSATION.

This court took its origin in 1790.

There is only *one* court of cassation in France, which sits at Paris; it is composed of a first president, at a salary of 40,000 fr. per annum, 3 presidents at 20,000 fr. each, and 45 judges at 15,000 fr., an attorney-general, and 6 advocates-general. The attorney-general is paid the same salary as the first president of the court; the first advocate-general 20,000 fr., and the junior advocates, 18,000 fr.

Since the Revolution of 1830, a reduction of 3,000 fr. per annum has been made in the salaries of all the judges and other officers belonging to this court. This is a court of appeal to decide disputed points of law *only*, both in civil and criminal causes. Until lately, if the judgments of the inferior courts were set aside, the court of cassation could designate the department where the cause should be tried again, so that it might go on *ad infinitum*. There have been instances where judgments have been set aside a dozen times, and tried again in as many different departments. But by a law enacted in 1828, when M. de Portalis was Minister of Justice, a cause can only be tried twice before the court of cassation, after which it is referred to a *cour royale* designated by that court, and is there definitively determined.

The motives for revoking a *criminal* judgment are: —

1. Illegal composition of the jury.

2. The president of the court having voted as a member of the *chambre du conseil* or of the *chambre d'accusation* (whose jurisdiction will be presently explained) for the prisoner being sent to trial.

3. The list of jurymen notified to the prisoner as containing thirty names, and only twenty-nine jurymen being present.

4. A juryman having acted as a witness against the prisoner on his being first apprehended.

5. A judge not having permitted the counsel to explain any fact necessary for the defence of the prisoner.

6. His refusing permission to read in Court the report of a doctor on a charge of infanticide.

7. His ordering the court to sit with closed doors without sufficient motives.

8. Irregularity in the questions put in the course of the trial to the prisoner or to witnesses.

9. The verdict of the jury being incomplete, contradictory, or illegal.

10. The president having sent the jury to reconsider a verdict, which was at first clear and precise.

11. False application of the penal law in correctional cases.

It has already been stated that the Minister of Justice is the head of the judicial order in France, but he never presides in any of the courts excepting in the court of cassation, and then only on special cases of great importance. It is fit to state that, since the Restoration, the Ministers who have filled the department of justice, *Barbé-Marbois, de Serres, Pasquier, Peyronnet, Portalis,* and *Courvoisier,* were magistrates of great abilities, honour, and integrity.

TRIBUNALS OF COMMERCE.

There are in France 213 tribunals of commerce; one at Paris, which is held at the *Bourse* or Exchange, and 212 distributed throughout the departments. The court sits daily (excepting on Sundays and holidays) in most of the principal commercial cities. In these tribunals, the greffiers or clerks alone are paid. The presidents and judges are chosen from amongst the most respectable and experienced merchants of each city, but their appointments are merely honorary. To form a court, there must be a president and two judges. The expense of these tribunals to Government amounts to 172,300 fr. annually.

PROCUREURS GÉNÉRAUX, AVOCATS GÉNÉRAUX.
Attorneys and Solicitors general.

In the *cour de cassation*, and in every *cour royale*, there are *procureurs généraux*, *avocats généraux*, and substitutes. The *procureurs généraux* have a superior authority, as all the *juges d'instruction*, *avocats généraux*, and substitutes within their jurisdiction are subject to their orders. The attorneys and advocates general, jointly, and sometimes separately, take the lead in all cases, whether criminal or civil, and sum up the evidence previous to judgment being passed by the court. The *procureurs généraux* fix the day, and sign the order for the execution or other punishment of criminals.

PROCUREURS DU ROI (KING'S ATTORNEYS), JUGES D'INSTRUCTION.

A *Procureur du Roi* is attached to every tribunal *de première instance*; his salary is equal to that of the president. These magistrates are charged with the repression, as far as in their power, of crimes and offences against the general safety, and with the superintendance and administration of public justice in all its branches. They plead in the *tribunal de première instance*, as Crown officers, in all correctional and civil causes. They are bound to see the judgments of the courts carried into execution. Each *procureur du roi* has a certain number of substitutes, who in the event of his being absent supply his place, and are paid the same salaries as the judges of the *tribunal de première instance*. The *procureur du roi* at Paris has fifteen substitutes, who receive each 7,000 fr. a year, but his salary is 16,000 fr. a year; in other places they are paid from 1,800 to 5,000 fr. a year. Their functions are also to receive all charges in criminal and correctional cases, and report them to the *juge d'instruction*, one of whom is attached to every tribunal, and to some of them, two. In Paris, there are fourteen *juges d'instruction*, who are chosen for

five years, from among the judges of the tribunal *de première instance*, and are paid one fifth more than the other judges. When their functions as *juges d'instruction* cease, they still retain their situations as judges.

COURTS OF ASSIZE (CRIMINAL COURTS.)

Throughout the Revolution, till 1811, there existed in France criminal courts whose judges were employed exclusively to try criminal cases. Since that time, courts have been established, composed of judges of the *cours royales* and others, which try criminal cases, are called *courts of assize*, and are held every three months, in the principal town or *chef-lieu* of each department. In each of these towns there is either a *cour royale* or a *tribunal de première instance*. The court of assize is composed of a president and three judges, chosen from among the members of the *cour royale* and the tribunal *de première instance*, who are nominated by the Minister of Justice, or by the first president of the royal court. When all the causes have been tried, the court is adjourned to the next quarter.

We shall now give the procedure in all criminal and correctional cases, before the parties are sent to trial. A prisoner is in the first instance brought before the *procureur du roi*, who examines him, and simply reports the case, without giving any legal opinion of his own, to the *juge d'instruction*, who examines the witnesses. The report is then sent back to the *procureur du roi*, who states his opinion in writing of the case in question, and returns it a second time to the *juge d'instruction*. This judge then lays the case before the *chambre du conseil du tribunal de première instance* (composed of three judges of that court); by these judges all charges are minutely investigated, and they decide whether there be grounds for further proceedings or for acquittal. The *procureur du roi*, however, may in the latter case oppose the liberation of the prisoner; and then he himself makes a report to the *chambre d'accusation*. If the *chambre du*

conseil, however, decides for further proceedings, its decision is sent to the *chambre d'accusation* (composed of five judges of the *cour royale*), who ultimately decide either for commitment for trial or for acquittal. In 1827, the *chambres du conseil* discharged no less a number than 16,888 persons for want of sufficient evidence, and in the same year, 1,382 persons were dismissed by the *chambres d'accusation* for the same reasons (1). Since the Revolution of 1830, all cases of libels are tried in the courts of assize by a jury; but the forms previous to trial have not undergone any change. A writer accused of libel is dealt with in the same way as persons accused of a criminal or a correctional offence; but bail is taken in these cases.

FUNCTIONS OF JURIES.

By a law respecting juries, passed 2d May 1827, persons eligible to sit on a jury are:—

1. An elector qualified to vote for a member of the Chamber of Deputies.

2. A public functionary appointed by the King to duties which he exercises gratuitously.

3. A military or naval officer retired from service, having a pension of at least 1,200 fr. per annum, and domiciliated for five years in the department.

4. Law students or special pleaders having a diploma to practise at the bar, and inscribed on the list of advocates, and having resided ten years in the department.

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(1) From the flippant manner in which the most serious cases are frequently disposed of by police magistrates and justices of the peace in England, we regret that there are not any tribunals similar to those we have just described. We have no objection to magistrates deciding in common police cases and trivial charges; but we think that in instances which may involve liberty, nay life, there should be some intermediate authority between a police magistrate or justice of the peace (many of whom are certainly not competent to decide upon knotty points) and a court of justice.

5. Licentiates in the faculty of sciences and letters, acknowledged as such by the University, and having resided ten years in the department.

6. Doctors of medicine, and those who unite the profession of physician with that of surgeon.

7. A public notary who has exercised his functions for three years.

8. A member or correspondent of the French Institute or other learned body specially sanctioned by the King.

The prefect of every department prepares a list of persons, according to the population. In the department of the Seine, the number chosen by the prefect to serve on juries is 1,500. These lists are sent to the presidents of the *cours royales*, who, each session, publicly draw by lot 36 persons who are to serve on the jury. The general jury list for 1830, prepared in terms of the law of May 1827, and that of the 2d of July 1828, give a total of 119,084 for the whole kingdom, with the exception of Corsica, where jury trial was not established till 1831.

The unanimity of the jury is not necessary, as eight forms a majority, which determines the verdict, but in cases where there are only seven against five, or that the number be equally divided, the court, by throwing its weight into either scale, could decide as it thought proper.

But by a law passed since the Revolution of 1830, the court can no longer interfere in the verdict of the jury. This is a most excellent amelioration in the criminal code. The prisoner may challenge twelve jurors. Juries are *not paid*, but their travelling expenses are defrayed.

Excuses admitted by the court for the non-attendance of a juryman.

The roads being impassable from heavy falls of snow;
Belonging to the sect called Quakers;
Being employed on public duty;
Being engaged on important private business, or prevented by sickness or by the dangerous illness of relations;

Irregularity in the mode of being summoned;
Ignorance of the French language;
Being under thirty years of age, or more than seventy;
Having served as juryman elsewhere during the year.

Expenses allowed to witnesses in criminal prosecutions.

Witnesses summoned to give evidence in a court of justice are allowed a sum equivalent to what he estimates his daily labour, in his ordinary profession, and even two days' labour, if he can prove that he has been obliged to find a substitute to fill his place during his absence; but this is left to the discretion of the judge.

A witness, having neither trade nor profession, is paid two francs a day.

If a witness lives at a distance from the court, he is paid his travelling expenses.

JUGES DE PAIX.

There are in all France 2,846 *juges de paix* or civil magistrates. In Paris their salaries are 2,400 fr. a year, and are twelve in number. Those in the country towns or capital cities of the departments are paid in proportion to the population. There are 2,754 of these magistrates who receive only 800 fr. a year, a sum equivalent to 32*l.* sterling. We really think that such a paltry salary to any magistrate can be no security for his integrity, or for the respect due to his rank in society. They have, however, certain emoluments arising from fees paid by individuals for certifying such acts and deeds as come within their jurisdiction. Each of these magistrates has a *greffier*, who has charge of the registry of those acts and deeds, and who receives a salary, not exceeding one-third of that of the *juge de paix*. Those magistrates decide cases of petty debts, not exceeding 100 fr. (like the courts of request in England), and their decision is final; but if the debt be above 100 fr., the parties can appeal to the *tribunal de première instance*. A *juge de paix* is allowed for every sitting to hear and determine the

necessity of affixing (in case of debt) the seal of justice upon any kind of property, as well as for every attendance to authorise the taking off the said seals—if in Paris 5 fr., in other towns, where there is a tribunal of *première instance*, 3 fr. 75 c., and in small country towns, 2 fr. 50 c. If the number of sittings charged (which must be calculated at three hours' duration each) be considered overrated, the president of the tribunal of *première instance* may tax the charge, and order a reduction. In cases where a reference is made to the president of this tribunal for the production of a will or other sealed papers in the possession of the *juge de paix*, if he attends the *tribunal*, he is allowed, for every *myriamètre*, two francs, and two for his return home.

For every consultation relating to family affairs, a *juge de paix* is paid, in Paris, 5 fr., but in large towns, 3 fr. 75 c.; in cantons and small towns, 2 fr. 50 c. He can, on no account, demand more than at the rate of two meetings. For taking the evidence of witnesses, to prove the birth of those contracting a marriage, where a certificate cannot be obtained, at Paris his fee is 5 fr., in other cities and small towns, 3 fr. 75 c., and 2 fr. 50 c. For granting every other kind of certificate, necessary to be given by a *juge de paix*, if in Paris, 1 fr.; elsewhere, 75 c. and 50 c. Being present at a seizure of goods taken in execution, at Paris, for three hours' attendance, he receives 5 fr., in other places, 3 fr. 75 c. and 2 fr. 50 c. Being present at arresting a person for debt, in Paris, 10 fr.; elsewhere, 7 fr. 50 c.

TRIBUNALS OF POLICE.

In every city or canton, a *juge de paix* presides at these courts, where all minor offences which, according to law, incur the punishment of imprisonment from 24 hours to five days, or the penalty of a fine not exceeding 15 fr., are tried. These offences are such as relate to infractions of the laws and regulations of the police; such, for instance, as not watering before houses in sultry weather, throwing

rubbish into the streets, so as to obstruct the free passage, or create a nuisance to neighbours, etc.; these offences are prosecuted at the suit of the commissary of police, or the mayor. All other offences, which regard the property or persons of individuals, are prosecuted at the suit of the persons aggrieved; such as, throwing dirt, water, etc., on passengers to injure their clothes, using abusive language, and other species of personal insult, breaking shop windows, etc.

It will be seen, by the foregoing sketch of the tribunals and judicial courts in France, that there are in France 27 *cours royales*, 361 *tribunaux de première instance*, and 86 *cours d'assises*: these last, however, are composed of judges from other courts; one *cour de cassation*, 213 *tribunaux de commerce*, and one *tribunal de police* in each canton; 3,656 judges, besides attorneys and advocates-general, king's attorneys, and 2,846 *juges de paix*.

BUDGET

OF THE EXPENDITURE OF THE MINISTRY OF JUSTICE FOR 1829.

Salaries of the Minister of Justice, the secretary general, directors, chief clerks, and other persons employed in that department, including the ordinary and contingent office expenses		621,822 fr.
Salaries of ministers of state	200,000 fr.	
Ditto of counsellors of state and masters of requests	619,500	
Ditto of the secretary general, chief clerks, and others employed in the office of the council of state	85,934	
Divers office expenses .	2,000	
		907,434
Carry over,		1,529,256

Brought forward,	1,529,256 fr.

Court of Cassation.

Salaries of the presidents, judges, procureur-general, advocates-general, chief clerks, and other persons employed in this court, including contingent expenses . .	1,006,800

Cours Royales.

Salaries of presidents, judges, attorneys-general, substitutes, and other persons attached to these courts, etc. . . .	4,455,775

Assize Courts.

Salaries of judges appointed to preside in the courts of assize, in those towns where there are no *cours royales.* Ditto to secretaries of the *procureurs du roi* .	223,200

Tribunals of first instance.

Salaries of presidents, vice-presidents, judges, King's attorneys, and other persons attached to these tribunals , . .	5,541,110

Tribunals of Commerce.

Salaries of the secretary to the president of this tribunal	2,000 fr.	
Ditto to clerks of the court	172,300	
		174,300

Tribunals of Police.

Salaries of clerks of the court (*greffiers*)	62,400
Carry over,	12,992,841

	Brought forward,	12,992,841 fr.
Justices of Peace (juges de paix).		
Salaries of the *juges de paix*	2,325,400 fr.	
Ditto of *greffiers* . .	775,135	
		3,100,535
Pensions.		
Supplementary grant to make up all the deficiencies for pensions to persons attached formerly to the Ministry of Justice.		398,000
Expenses at the charge of the State, of which criminals bear no part; as, for instance, travelling expenses allowed to jurymen, extra allowances to judges in the courts of assizes, expenses of arrests, etc.		850,000
Expenses for criminal prosecutions, (which may be recovered from criminals convicted); expenses allowed to witnesses, removal of prisoners, etc., etc. . . .		2,550,000
Total.		19,891,376 fr.

Recapitulation.

Office expenses, salaries, etc. of the Ministry of Justice	621,822 fr.
Minister and counsellors of State . .	907,434
Courts and tribunals	14,962,120
Expenses of the criminal courts . .	3,400,000
Total expenditure . . .	19,891,376 fr.

The above sum appears in the general budget for the year 1829.

LAW OF ARREST FOR DEBT.

A new law on the subject of arrest for debt, or *contrainte par corps*, received the royal assent on the 17th April 1832.

Before proceeding to notice the special provisions which were then introduced into the French system of legislation on the subject of imprisonment, as a means of enforcing the payment of debt or the performance of civil obligations, it may be necessary to remind the English reader that the French people are practically unacquainted with the judicial absurdity of arrest on *mesne* process. In France, individual liberty cannot be disturbed or restrained on the mere affidavit of a pretended creditor. The debt must first be established by the judgment of a competent tribunal *in foro contentioso*. On the other hand, there has hitherto been no legislative provision in France for a debtor's liberation, on the fullest proof of his insolvency and of the unreserved cession to his creditors of the whole of his property.

Nevertheless, imprisonment for debt must be considered in France as the exception rather than the rule, although the exceptions are no doubt sufficiently numerous. In the first category, as they would say themselves, are all persons engaged in commercial pursuits, or who have become bound by bills of exchange or by other obligations conceived in a commercial form. Even in these cases, however, the debt for which judgment has been obtained must amount to at least two hundred francs. Nor are women, married or unmarried, unless legally reputed as merchants, exposed to the constraint of imprisonment, although formally bound by commercial obligations. Minors are also entitled to this indulgence, as are likewise the heirs and representatives of individuals, themselves amenable to the commercial tribunals, and whose representatives have become liable in consequence of their succession. The law, in short, contains a general

provision in favour of all persons not merchant who have affixed their names to commercial obligations not of a negociable nature, unless these obligations have had their origin in trade, traffic, or exchange, or in banking or broking transactions. A further limitation is declared against imprisonment for debt in favour of all persons who have entered on their seventieth year. Imprisonment ceases also *de jure* at the end of one year, when the principal sum for which the arrest has taken place, does not amount to 500 fr.; at the end of two years when it does not amount to 1,000 fr.; at the end of three years when it does not amount to 3,000 fr.; at the end of four years when it does not amount to 5,000 fr.; and at the end of five years when it amounts to 5,000 fr. or upwards.

By the common law of France, certain cases are provided in which the judges are compelled to pronounce sentence of imprisonment for periods which are specified in the Civil Code or in subsequent enactments. There are other cases also, such as the payment of rent for rural property, in which the power of imprisonment is discretionary on the part of the judge before whom the cause is brought for trial. By the law of 1832, the maximum of imprisonment is fixed in every case at ten years; and where the power is discretionary with the judge, it is limited to five years.

The debtors of the treasury, and of communes, hospitals, and public establishments, if the sums due by them amount to 300 fr. or upwards, are specially subjected to imprisonment by one of the clauses of the law of 1832.

In no case is imprisonment allowed at the suit of a husband against his wife, or of a wife against her husband, nor between ascendants and descendants, brothers and sisters, or others in the same degree of relationship. This being a modification introduced by the enactment of 1832 on the previous state of the law, it is declared that persons in prison at the date of its promulgation, at the suit of relatives within the prescribed degree of consanguinity shall immediately be liberated. It is also declared that

a husband and wife cannot both be imprisoned for payment of the same debt.

By the common law there are certain cases in which the civil and commercial tribunals decide in the last resort; but a right of appeal is now introduced in all cases with respect to so much of the judgment as affects the personal freedom of the debtor, who however, pending the appeal, must remain subject to the judgment of the inferior tribunals.

The costs which a debtor must pay or deposit, in order to prevent his imprisonment or obtain his liberation, are limited to those immediately connected with his arrest, and do not include the costs of the suit on which the judgment has followed. If the debt be not of a commercial nature, the debtor may obtain his enlargement on paying or consigning a third part of the amount, and on giving sureties for the payment within a year of the other two thirds, to the satisfaction of the court within whose jurisdiction he is detained. The sureties must be taken bound *in solidum* with the principal debtor; and the latter at the end of the year may again be imprisoned, without prejudice to the creditor's claims against the surety. But a debtor who has obtained his liberation, by remaining in prison during the full period prescribed as applicable to the amount of his debt, is not liable to be again imprisoned, even at the suit of other creditors, unless the debts due to them infer a longer period of imprisonment than that to which he has already been subjected. In that case, his previous incarceration is to be imputed *pro tanto* in diminution of the period of his new imprisonment.

The alimentary provision which a creditor must in all cases provide for his imprisoned debtor is fixed at 30 fr. a month in Paris and elsewhere at 25 fr. A month's aliment must always be lodged in advance, and the deposit of a smaller sum will not impede the debtor's liberation at the expiry of the month. The certificate of the jailor, presented to the president of the tribunal, is sufficient to

obtain a debtor's liberation; and a debtor who has thus obtained his enlargement, through the omission on the part of his creditor to provide him with aliment, is not liable to be again arrested for payment of the same debt.

Foreigners not domiciled in France are treated less favourably in regard to imprisonment than the natives of the country. As to them there is no distinction between debts merely civil or those strictly commercial in their nature, and their minimum is fixed so low as 150 fr. A measure analogous to the English arrest on mesne process is also provided for the security of the French creditor against his foreign debtor. The president of the tribunal of first instance of the arrondissement in which the foreign debtor is found, is authorised to issue a warrant for his provisional detention; but the debtor may insist on his enlargement if the creditor does not obtain his final judgment within eight days after this provisional arrest. This arrest is not to take place, or is to cease, as soon as the foreigner shall prove that he is possessed of a commercial establishment or of real property on the French territory of sufficient value to secure the payment of his debt. He is also entitled to his liberation on finding the security of a person domiciled in France and known to be solvent. The imprisonment of a foreigner ceases *de jure* at the end of two years when the principal sum for which the arrest has taken place does not amount to 500 fr.; at the end of four years when it does not amount to 1,000 fr.; at the end of six years when it does not amount to 3,000 fr.; at the end of eight years when it does not amount to 5,000 fr., and at the end of ten years when it amounts to 5,000 fr. or upwards. Foreigners who have entered on their seventieth year are not liable to imprisonment; and if previously arrested, they are entitled like natives to their liberation as soon as their seventieth year is begun.

The distinction now taken between natives and foreigners, on the subject of arrest for debt, did not exist prior to the revolution of 1789, nor was there any law

made to that effect during the republic. In 1807, however, although all the English in France were detained as hostages, or prisoners of war, Napoleon *ordered* his Legislative Body to pass a law, which enacted this distinction. This was evidently directed against Englishmen, as other nations had comparatively few money transactions with France. It is but justice to Buonaparte to add, that he was probably misled by those around him, by whom he was led to believe that there was on this subject a distinction observed in England unfavorable to foreigners in their transactions with native inhabitants. Being then in Paris, and hearing of this wilful misrepresentation, I inserted a long letter in the *Journal du Commerce* of the 28th of October 1807, in which I contradicted the erroneous statement, and proved by reference to our statutes, and the practice of our Courts, "That foreigners, so far from being taken at a disad- "vantage, were actually treated with more favour than "the natives." I cited Lord Moira's act of 1801, "which "protected Frenchmen from arrest for debts contracted "in France previous to the revolution of 1789." I also stated "that in criminal cases a foreigner might have half "of the number of the Jury by whom he was to be tried, "composed of foreigners."

I was surprised that this law was not repealed after the restoration in 1814. If it was not done then, of course it could not be expected that the liberal Government of 1830 would treat Englishmen with more liberality than its predecessors, as French liberalism means hatred—deadly hatred to England and to Englishmen. From this hostile feeling towards us, I must in candour exempt king Louis-Philippe, in spite of his acknowledged *liberality*, and some few others of the *liberal* school.

The form and manner of conducting an arrest for debt of natives, are thus described in one of the well known works of Mr. Okey, an English Barrister and counsel to the British Embassy at Paris, entitled: "*A concise* "*Digest of the law, usage and custom, affecting the*

" commercial and civil intercourse of the subjects of " Great Britain and France."

" Arrest can only be made by a copy of the judgment, and after a day's notice given by the officer (*huissier*) appointed by it or by the president of the *Tribunal de première instance* of the place where the debtor is found. The notice must recite his residence or election of domicile in the *commune* where the court sits which has given judgment.

" Arrest must not be before sunrise or after sunset, on *fête*-days, in buildings dedicated to divine worship, at the seat of constituted authorities, nor in any house whatever, even in the domicile of the debtor, unless permitted by the *Juge de paix* of the place, who must, in such case, accompany the officer. The last method is resorted to where the debtor, by continually keeping house, seeks to avoid an arrest. The intervention of the *Juge de paix* is necessary only for obtaining entrance to the house : if that is not refused to the officer, the debtor may be arrested even in his own domicile. But such intervention will not avail in the two places first above mentioned, if it be during divine service or the sitting of such constituted authorities.

" The debtor is privileged from arrest in going and returning when called upon to give evidence before courts of justice, arbitrators, etc.

" If the debtor, on the ground of the arrest being illegal or without good cause, demands that it be inquired into, he may be taken immediately before the president of the *Tribunal de première instance* of the place where the arrest has been made, who shall decide as an arbitrator. If the arrest takes place when the court is not sitting the debtor may be taken to the president's house.

" The order made by the president must be registered on the *procès-verbal* of the officer, and executed immediately ; but whichever way the decision may be, it is only provisional—either party may apply to the court.

" When the debtor does not demand such reference, or in case the president, when it has been required, decided against him, the debtor is taken to the prison of the place, or, if there be none there, to the nearest. The officer and all other persons accompanying, receiving or detaining a debtor in any place of confinement not legally intended for that purpose, may be prosecuted for false imprisonment.

" Although arrest is usually made by *huissiers*, according to established forms, there are in Paris other officers to the number of ten, termed *gardes de commerce*, attached to, and who, by authority of the *Tribunal de Commerce*, also execute process."

CRIMES AND PUNISHMENTS IN 1830.

The statistics of crime and of criminal justice in France, for the last seven years, have in some degree been made familiar to the world by a series of official reports, the first of which was prepared in the name and under the auspices of the Count de Peyronnet, when at the head of the department of justice, in the year 1826. The first of these reports applies to the year 1825, and the last which has appeared, and which, like its predecessors, is addressed to the King, bears the signature of M. Barthe, as Keeper of the Seals and Minister of Justice, and, although dated on the 29th of December 1831, is applicable in its details to the previous year. The last paragraphs of this report are remarkable from the allusion which is made in them to the political events which occurred during the period to which it refers.

"During this year," he says, "1830, which has wit-
"nessed so *glorious* a revolution, by which the fabric of
"society was in danger of being shaken to its very foun-
"dations, the regular course of justice has remained un-
"disturbed; the labours of the public authorities, with
"reference alike to the celerity of prosecution and to the
"repression of crime, have only experienced such slight
"variations, and these for the most part favourable, which
"have been observed between one year and another in
"ordinary periods. The number of offences, so far
"from increasing, as might have been apprehended, has
"suffered on the contrary a sensible diminution.

"Such results, of which incontestable evidence is to be
"found in the numerous tables which I have the honour to
"lay before your Majesty, afford a striking testimony to
"the fact that the nation, after having risen to avenge a
"violated constitution, and to secure its sincere and un-
"reluctant execution under a sovereign of its choice, re-
"turned immediately into that path of legality which
"offered the only guarantee for the rights of the citizens,
"and for the safety and the prosperity of the State."

The crimes and offences brought under consideration in these reports are divided into three great branches; the first of which relates to such crimes as are tried before the courts of assize, with the assistance of a jury; the second applies to offences of minor gravity, decided by the correctional tribunals; and the third is exclusively reserved for such as are disposed of by the ordinary magistrates of police.

In 1830, the number of persons brought to trial before the courts of assize was 7,749, included in 5,722 indictments. The number of persons tried, and of indictments for 1829, were greater than those for 1830, by 438 and 370 respectively. Towards the end of the year 1830, a law was passed, by which political delinquencies, and in general the offences of the press were tried by a jury in the courts of assize, instead of being brought as formerly before the correctional tribunals. The number of persons brought to trial, under this new law, before the close of the year 1830, was eighteen, and of indictments thirteen. It is to be regretted that the official statements for the year 1831 will not be made up for several months after the present work has passed through the press, so that it will not be possible to establish a comparison between the results obtained under the new law and the old. There can be no doubt, however, that the number of prosecutions has been greatly increased since the period of the revolution, and that the convictions bear a much smaller proportion to the acquittals since the trials have taken place with the intervention of a jury.

The most ordinary subjects of prosecution against the public newspapers are: for publication without furnishing the security, or making the deposit required by law; —for refusing to insert an answer to a previous article in which the name of some individual has been mentioned; —for attacks on the constitutional authority of the King, on the order of succession, and on the rights which the King derives, formerly from his birth, and now from the will of the people;—for provocation to disobedience to the

laws;—for outrages on public functionaries;—for defamation of the King's Ministers;—for offences against public morals and religion, and for defamation and outrage on private individuals.

The offences of books, pamphlets, and offensive engravings or caricatures, which are most frequently the subject of prosecution, are:—the sale of works which have previously been condemned; the exercise of the trade of a bookseller or printer without a previous licence; the distribution of printed works without a name, either of the author or printer; the publication of engravings not duly authorised; the piracy of engravings or of musical compositions; and generally the publication of works injurious to religion, morality, or the public peace.

Of 6,961 persons tried in the courts of assize, in the year 1830, 3,910 were for crimes against property, and 1,158 for crimes against the person. The proportion of the latter class of offences has for several years been decreasing. It was 29 per cent. in 1825, 28 in 1826 and 1827, 25 in 1828, 24 in 1829, and only 23 in 1830. The proportion between the number of persons judicially accused of offences, and the general population of the kingdom, was in 1829 as one in 4,321, and in 1830 as one in 4,576. The departments of the Seine and of Corsica present a much higher proportion. In the former, the number of persons brought to trial is as one to 1,260 of the general population, and in the latter as one to 2,152. The department of the Ain, on the contrary, gives but one accused to 17,081 inhabitants.

Of the 6,962 individuals brought to trial in 1830, 5,608 were men, and 1,354 women, which makes the proportion of the latter to the former as 19 to 100. In 1829, it was at 20 to 100. In crimes against the person, the proportion is as 15, and in other crimes as 21 to 100.

As to the ages of the accused, 114 had not completed their 16th year, and 1,161 were from 16 to 21 years of age. In 1829, these proportions were 117 and 1,226 respectively. The whole of the accused were natives of

France, with the exception of 216, and 4,932 had been born and were domiciled in the departments in which they were tried.

As to education, the proportions are as follows:—4,319 could neither read nor write, 1,826 could do so imperfectly, 688 could read and write well, and 129 had received a superior education.

The proportion of those who were totally uneducated, and the whole number of the class to which they belonged, was as follows. The persons accused of parricide were, without exception, completely illiterate; of murder and assassination 56 per cent.; poisoning 51; infanticide 88; wounding or striking parents or ascendants 57; other wounds 55; false witness and subornation of perjury 66; rebellion 59; fraudulent bankruptcy 15; thefts of all kinds 67; and arson 69. The number of men who could neither read nor write was 58 per cent., and of women 78; of persons under 21 years of age 66; from 21 to 40, 62; and from 40 upwards, 60.

Classed according to their residence in town or country, 3,945 of the accused had their domiciles in rural communes, and the remaining 2,778 in towns or urban communes.

The professions of the accused are separated into nine principal classes, and these again are subdivided into subordinate articles. The first includes all those who apply themselves to the cultivation of the soil, the care and management of woods and forests, and, in general, the extraction of primary produce; their numbers amount to 2,240. The second, such citizens as work in wood, iron, copper, etc. 1,813. The third, bakers, and others who sell and prepare eatables, 225. The fourth, such workmen as make clothing furniture, etc. 309. The fifth, exchange brokers, merchants, and others exclusively occupied in trade or money transactions, 455. The sixth, persons engaged in carrying goods or passengers, by land or water, 310. The seventh, individuals who keep lodging-houses, taverns, or hotels, and their ser-

vants, 848. The eighth, persons exercising the liberal professions, or living on their revenue, 374. The ninth, persons of no profession, 388.

Of the first class, 31 in the hundred were accused of crimes against the person, and 69 of crimes against property. These proportions were, for the second class, 23 and 77; for the third, 24 and 76; for the fourth, 21 and 79; for the fifth, 11 and 89; for the sixth, 25 and 75; for the seventh, 16 and 84; for the eighth, 33 and 67; and 17 and 83 for the ninth.

It thus appears that the greatest number of crimes against the person are committed by individuals of the eighth class, who, from their fortune and condition, must be supposed to have been better educated than those of any of the others.

As to the results of the trials, 1,717 of the indictments were fully supported; 1,689 were maintained with certain modifications; and 1,662 were wholly rejected.

Of the individuals brought to trial, as appears by the subjoined table, 2,832 were acquitted, and 4,130 condemned as follows:—

Capitally	92
To the galleys for life	268
Ditto for a limited period	973
To long periods of imprisonment.	1,005
To short ditto	1,740
To the pillory	8
To civil degradation	1
Children under sixteen years of age confined by way of correction	43
Total	4,130

The whole of the capital convicts, with one exception, availed themselves of their right of appeal, which applies only to the forms of proceeding, and, when successful, has the effect of entitling the appellant to a new trial. In four cases the court of cassation annulled the first

judgment, but, in all of them, the capital conviction was confirmed on the case being again submitted to the court of assize; 38 of the convicts were executed; 52 had their sentences commuted; 22 into the galleys for life; 5 for a limited period; 24 into solitary confinement, perpetual, or temporary; 3 into simple imprisonment; and only one obtained a free pardon.

The following table, extracted from the official reports, gives a comparative view of the judgments pronounced in the courts of assize for each of the six years which have been made the subject of ministerial research.

	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.
Sentenced capitally.	134	150	109	114	89	92
To the galleys for life.	283	281	317	268	273	268
To ditto for a limited period. . .	1,052	1,139	1,062	1,142	1,033	973
To long periods of imprisonment. .	1,160	1,228	1,223	1,225	1,222	1,005
To short ditto.	1,342	1,487	1,416	1,739	1,825	1,740
To the pillory.	6	5	5	11	1	8
To banishment.	1	1	»	1	3	»
To civil degradation.	2	1	6	»	1	1
Children under 16 years of age, confined by way of correction. .	57	56	68	53	28	43
Total.	4,037	4,348	4,236	4,551	4,475	4,130

The convicts condemned to punishments inferring infamy are in the proportion of 34 to 100 on the numbers of the accused. The largest proportion of acquittals is in favour of those accused of crimes against the person, which, in 1830, were as 54 to 100, while the acquittals of persons accused of crimes against property were only as 36 to 100.

On the 2d of May 1827, a new law was passed, the object and effect of which were to alter the system of trial by jury in France, and to call a much larger number of persons than formerly to exercise the functions of jurors. Before that period, the proportion of convictions to acquittals, between one year and another, was very nearly equal; and it appears, by the comparison afforded by the six official reports, three of which apply to years anterior to the new law, and three posterior, that although the

change of system has been considerable, the change in result has been comparatively insignificant.

By becoming more popular in the mode of their selection, the juries, under the operation of the new law, have displayed a certain tendency, although slight in degree, to appreciate less severely the charges against the accused. Thus, during the three years 1825, 1826, and 1827, the proportion of acquittals to accusations was as 38 to 100, while, in the years 1828, 1829, and 1830, it was as 39. In the three former years, the convicts condemned to punishments inferring infamy were as 41 to 100, while, in the three latter, they were as 36. Again, in the earlier period, the convicts condemned to mere correctional punishments were as 21 to 100, while, in the subsequent period, they were as 25.

The proportion of women acquitted is always greater than that of men. In 1830, they were as 46 to 100, while the men were as 39.

Education seems to give a greater chance of acquittal. In 1830, of those who could neither read nor write, 38 in the 100 were convicted, while, of those who could read and write imperfectly, the proportion was 42; of those who could read and write well, it was 48; and of those who had acquired a superior education, it amounted to 63. The same proportions were observed in previous years.

Surveillance de la haute police.

In a variety of cases provided for by law, a prisoner after being liberated from the galleys, or from simple confinement, is placed for a limited period under the *surveillance de la haute police*. While he remains under this restriction, his freedom is so far curtailed that he must constantly reside within the limits prescribed to him, and present himself once a week before the authorities, under whose inspection he is placed, for the purpose of verifying his compliance with the terms of his sentence. As the interests of convicted criminals must

always be held subordinate to those of society at large, the hardships which are suffered during the period of probation, which is thus interposed between the convict's liberation from prison or from the galleys and his unrestricted admission into the bosom of society, must be regarded as an integral portion of the punishment awarded to him for his infraction of the laws.

The barbarous practice of branding the criminal, and thus excluding him for ever from the hope of recovering his place in society, has been abolished, and it is to be hoped that the punishment of the pillory, which is known to be attended with similar bad effects as to the reclamation of the criminal, will soon also, on the same principle, be equally relinquished.

By the alterations made in the penal code in may 1832, the number of offences declared capital are reduced to thirty-seven; but in this number several classes of crimes are separated, which in England would be included under one head, such as parricide, infanticide, poisoning and assassination, which, as these terms are understood in France, apply all to murder, and not to manslaughter, or homicide culpable or justifiable. The most remarkable of the recent exceptions from this sanguinary branch of the penal code are coining and the forgery of bank-notes.

The following is the legal description of the offences punished with death according to the present penal code.

Bearing arms against France.

Conspiring or treating with foreign powers to engage them to commit hostilities or to engage in warlike operations against France, etc.

Holding communication with the enemy, so as to facilitate their entry on the French territory, etc., etc.

The penalty of death is also applicable, if the hostile plots or the communications pointed out in the two preceding articles are committed to the prejudice of the allies of France.

Disclosing the secret of an expedition or negotiation to the agents of a foreign power.

The communication to the enemy of the plans of fortifications, arsenals, ports, or roadsteads, by the functionaries officially entrusted with them.

The same penalty is applicable to persons, not functionaries, who may have procured such plans by means of fraud, corruption, or violence.

The concealment of spies, or soldiers belonging to the enemy sent as spies, and *known to be such*.

Attempt against the life of the King, or any of the members of the royal family.

Attempt to change or destroy the Government, or to excite the citizens to take up arms against the royal authority.

Attempt to excite civil war, etc.

Levying or enlisting an armed force without legitimate authority.

Assuming unlawfully or without a justifiable motive the command of a *corps d'armée*, a fleet, etc.

The retention, contrary to the orders of Government, of any military command whatsoever.

The maintenance of an army or assemblage of troops after orders have been given to disband them.

The requisition of the public force, followed by effect, against the levy of troops legally authorised.

The burning or destruction of edifices, stores, arsenals, vessels, or other property belonging to the state.

The commanding of armed bands for the purpose of pillage, rebellion, etc.

The exercising in such bands any function whatsoever.

The levying, organising, or directing of such bands; the furnishing them with arms, ammunition, or provisions, or holding any communication with them.

Forming part of such bands in case they have attempted or executed any one of the crimes provided against by the preceding articles.

Exciting by public speeches, placards, or printed writings, to the commission of any of the crimes above mentioned, when such excitement has been followed by effect.

The conspiring of public functionaries against the safety of the state.

The inflicting of blows or wounds on functionaries or on agents of the public force, while in the exercise of their functions, and with the intention of killing them.

Assassination, parricide, infanticide, and poisoning.

Crimes committed by malefactors with the aid of torture or of peculiar acts of barbarity.

Homicide preceded, accompanied, or followed by another crime.

Homicide, committed for the purpose of preparing, or facilitating the execution of a misdemeanour, or to secure impunity to such misdemeanour.

Premeditated wounds or blows *followed by death.* Mutilation followed by death within forty days.

Personal torture inflicted on persons arrested or detained illegally.

The burning of buildings, boats, storehouses, woodyards or dwelling houses, or any place capable of being used as a dwelling house, whether it belongs or not to the author of the crime.

The destruction of the structures, etc., above enumerated, by means of a mine.

The commission, by a person condemned to the galleys for life, of a second crime liable to the same penalty.

It is provided by the Penal Code that when the jury declares by their verdict, that the case brought before them is attended by attenuating circumstances, the Court, instead of inflicting the punishment of death, may condemn the criminal to the galleys for life, or for a limited period.

By the first articles of the Penal Code, a well-defined attempt at the commission of a crime, is punished with the same penalty as the crime itself.

TABLE I, CONTAINING THE NATURE OF CRIMES, THE NUMBER CONVICTED, AND THEIR PUNISHMENT, IN THE YEAR 1830, ALL OF WHICH WERE TRIED BY JURY.

NATURE OF THE CRIMES.	NUMBER OF PERSONS TRIED.	NUMBER OF PERSONS acquitted.	PUNISHMENTS. DEATH.	GALLEY SLAVERY (1) for life.	GALLEY SLAVERY from 5 to 20 years.	SOLITARY CONFINEMENT from 5 years and upwards.	PILLORY.	BANISHMENT.	DEGRADATION AND DISMISSAL from public service.	FINE AND IMPRISONMENT from 1 to 3 years.	NUMBER OF CHILDREN under age, detained in houses of correction from 1 to 10 years.
Attempts on personal liberty and arbitrary arrests.	1	1	»	»	»	»				»	
Resistance by force of arms to the civil authorities.	258	175			10	16				57	
Personal insult to public officers.	54	21			»	8	1			24	
Escape from prison.	3	3			»	»				»	
Associations to commit crime.	49	27		8	4	7				3	
Extortion of money accompanied with personal violence.	5	1	»	»	»	3				1	
Murder (*Assassinat*).	469	210	49	82	9	24				95	
Parricide.	4	2	2	»	»	»				»	
Infanticide.	109	62	1	14	»	1				31	
Poisoning.	37	23	12	»	»	1				1	
Menaces and putting in bodily fear by incendiary letters.	8	7			»	»				1	
Cutting and maiming.	235	133			2	9				91	
DP. public officers.	54	33			3	33				5	
Attempts at abortion.	4	3			»	»				1	
Rapes and attempts at rape.	136	79	»	7	1	25				24	
D°. on children under 15 years of age.	107	44	»	1	44	»				18	
Bigamy.	2	»	»	1	6	»				»	
Elopements with minors and stealing children under 15 years of age.	16	9	»	3	3	1				»	
Bearing false witness and perjury.	71	57	»	»	6	7			1	»	
Libels.	2	1	»	»	»	»				1	
Coinage of money.	48	35	6	»	»	1				6	
Counterfeiting seals and stamps, etc.	8	7	»	»	»	1				»	
Forgery.	363	189	»	3	77	83				11	
Political crimes.	16	8	»	»	»	»				8	
Bribery and corruption.	29	21	»	»	»	1	7			»	
Embezzlement of public money.	2	2	»	»	»	»				»	
Embezzling documents from public Archives.	4	4	»	»	»	»				»	
Robbery of churches, etc.	47	18	»	3	9	4				13	
Highway robbery.	135	45	1	36	9	17				25	2
Robbery by servants, etc.	1,016	350	»	2	45	321				291	7
Grand and petty larceny, picking of pockets, shoplifting, burglary, etc.	3,280	1,902	1	106	707	433				1,009	31
Extorting signatures to bills, etc.	28	16	»	»	9	»				3	»
Fraudulent bankruptcy.	84	54	»	»	16	»				10	»
Setting fire to houses (arson).	123	84	19	2	4	4				7	3
Wilfully burning other property.	15	11	1	»	1	1				1	
Destruction of public edifices.	28	26	»		»	2				»	
Stealing and damaging of corn.	48	37	»	1	6	1				9	
D°. houses and furniture.	37	31	»	»	2	1				1	
Slave trade.	1	1	»	»	»	»				»	
Total.	6,961	2,831	92	268	973	1,005	8		1	1,740	43

(1) Women are never condemned to the galleys; for them the chief secondary punishment is solitary confinement.

TABLE II. — OFFENCES TRIED BEFORE CORRECTIONAL TRIBUNALS WITH... JURIES, DURING THE YEAR 1830.

NATURE OF OFFENCES.	NUMBER of persons tried.	NUMBER of persons acquitted.	PUNISHMENT. Imprisonment for 1 year and upwards.	PUNISHMENT. Imprisonment for less than 1 year.	PUNISHMENT. To pay a fine of 16 fr. and upwards.
Uttering base coin, knowing it to be so, although received as good (1)	33	10	»	»	23
Altering passports or certificates	97	20	77	»	»
Embezzlement of public money	2	»	2	»	»
Bribery and corruption in public functionaries	36	11	22	»	» 7
Illegal arrests, etc.	25	8	10	»	
Disobeying the Laws relative to births, marriages, and deaths	2	1	»	»	1
Association (in French called "*Rebellion*") of one or more armed persons, and insulting the civil authorities (2)	1,996	544	29	1,298	125
Insulting magistrates on duty	807	263	10	353	181
Insult and violence towards functionaries or agents of police	2,703	682	20	846	1,155
Refusing to render assistance to the Police when legally called upon	1	1	»	»	»
Escaping of prisoners	233	70	34	129	»
Concealment of criminals	20	14	»	6	»
Breaking of seals placed on property by public authority	25	12	»	11	2
Taking papers clandestinely out of a public registry-office	1	»	»	»	1
Injuring public monuments	48	27	»	18	3
Usurping titles or public functions, etc.	64	25	5	30	4
Offences against public worship	194	132	»	41	21
Insults to ecclesiastics	49	12	2	29	6
Vagrancy	3,202	1,191	43	1,917	51
Mendicity	1,190	272	101	811	1
Public hawkers not having a licence	126	38	87	1	»
Illegal associations	14	11	»	2	1
Verbal or written threats to do injury	103	45	10	44	4
Striking and wounding	11,905	4,497	214	4,724	2,468
Carrying prohibited arms	94	31	»	6	54
Involuntary homicides	253	106	15	116	15
Offences against public decency	515	89	25	179	22
Idem against public morals	146	142	57	42	1
Adultery	82	37	9	33	3
Offences against children (changing or abandoning them)	183	24	8	48	8
Infraction of the law relative to burials	52	18	1	20	13
Secreting the body of a person killed	2	»	2	»	»
Defamation of character and injurious language	3,265	1,590	3	223	1,449
Slanderous accusations against individuals	64	42	»	11	11
Petty thefts	14,241	3,753	4,704	5,694	526
Simple bankruptcy (3)	106	39	9	57	1
Carry over	41,879	13,763	5,499	16,086	6,152

(1 Uttering base coin, knowing it to be such, is a capital offence; but uttering it without such knowledge, having taken it as good, is only a misdemeanour.

(2) Persons who insult magistrates are also punished with the galleys, if their number exceed 20, and if murder was intended.

(3) Simple bankruptcy is distinguished from fraudulent, when there does not appear an intention to defraud. Bankrupts addicted to extravagant household expenses, gaming, buying on credit, and selling under the current price, are liable to be prosecuted; and if found guilty, though not of intentional fraud, but of extravagance and negligence in business, are punished with

NATURE OF OFFENCES.	NUMBER of persons tried.	NUMBER of persons acquitted.	PUNISHMENT. Imprisonment for 1 year and upwards.	Imprisonment for less than 1 year.	To pay a fine of 16 fr. and upwards.
Brought forward.....	44,879	13,763	5,499	16,086	6,152
Swindling.....	926	334	169	17	4
Abuse of trust.....	362	189	86	279	8
Clandestine lotteries (or little goes) and games of hazard.....	118	32	»	50	31
Auctioneers preventing advances on biddings at sales.....	69	38	»	3	28
Combination of workmen against their employers.....	206	69	2	134	1
Illegal pawnbroking.....	34	12	»	12	6
Involuntary wounding.....	521	163	»	227	130
Damaging trees, gardens, orchards, etc....	2,407	689	»	254	1,464
Destroying title-deeds, etc.....	32	14	7	9	2
Injuring furniture, objects of merchandize.	41	5	12	25	2
Destroying plants, corn, etc.	139	73	12	42	12
Idem animals belonging to others.....	73	33	»	23	17
Idem inclosures, displacing landmarks, etc.	676	270	»	276	125
Involuntary setting fire to property.....	162	67	1	94	»
Inundating other persons' property.....	60	37	»	23	»
Violating the law respecting animal contagion.....	34	13	»	12	9
Violating the regulations of the police.....	198	73	»	113	342
Refusing to give evidence in a court of justice.	16	4	»	»	12
Insulting a person on account of his having served as a witness in a court of justice..	18	3	1	9	5
Violating the regulations respecting sheriff-officers.....	14	5	»	1	8
Holding obscene language, distributing indecent books or prints.....	61	17	2	35	7
Exciting others to commit crimes and offences.....	13	2	1	10	»
Political offences.....	252	98	9	136	9
Infraction of the law relative to bookselling and printing, and the press.....	222	132	1	49	40
Detaining fire arms belonging to Government.....	127	12	»	125	3
Concealing deserters, buying military stores.	71	37	45	21	9
Sporting out of season or without a licence.	3,776	899	»	11	2,866
Endangering public salubrity by carrying on unwholesome trades.....	2	»	»	2	»
Practising medicine without a qualification.	113	35	»	5	73
Idem midwifery and pharmacy *idem*.....	178	58	»	13	107
Damaging public roads.....	442	187	»	»	255
Robbing, etc. (marauders.).....	1,005	225	4	374	399
Using false weights and measures.....	82	34	»	13	35
Usury.....	99	29	»	1	69
Violation of the laws relating to public education.....	111	52	»	»	59
Idem relating to octroi, indirect taxes, customs, and posts.....	2,996	370	9	1,436	1,181
Idem forests public and private.....	150,802	14,176	»	3,3	136,5
Idem fisheries in rivers, etc.....	806	255	»	29	5
Idem maritime laws.....	87	39	»	35	13
Idem mines, and gun-powder.....	64	32	»	4	38
TOTAL.....	209,493	32,575	5,860	20,021	150,603

from 1 month to 5 years' imprisonment, according to circumstances. In 1830, the number of bankrupts was 1,237, out of which number 617 resided in the department of the Seine; of the whole number only 5 were allowed to recommence business, or what we call in England obtained their certificate.

TRIBUNALS OF SIMPLE POLICE.

The petty courts, the organisation of which we have already described in the preceding pages, have only the power of inflicting five days' imprisonment and a fine of 15 fr. on the offending party. The minimum is twenty-four hours' imprisonment, and 5 fr. fine.

The total number of cases disposed of were 112,114 fined, 4,933 imprisoned, and 20,006 acquitted.

PRISONS.

It has been said that the prisons of a country form so many links of the great *chain* by which society is held together. If the observation be applicable to France, the extensive scale on which provision is made for the detention of offenders against the laws should afford the best possible security against the social fabric being suffered to fall to pieces. I have devoted a good deal of time to the examination of these establishments, and to the study of the character of their inmates; and, in so far as offences against property are concerned, the result of my observation has been, that such crimes are in France, as compared with England, as yet in their infancy. Robbery with us, if not studied as a science, is, at least, practised as an art, and regularly pursued as a profession. The thieves of France are not less than a century behind us. The skill and combination which are necessary to the perpetration of a burglary in a banking-house have hitherto been reserved among our neighbours for less objectionable objects. Happily perhaps for them, the capital of the country is not so abundant as to seek for outlets among the auxiliaries of the housebreaker. The ordinary incentives to crime are here the vulgar ones of hunger and want, and the public prisons, in place of being seminaries of vice, are devoted to their true object of being places of punishment.

Prisons in France have considerably increased since the first revolution; and as to state prisons, the revolution of 1789 pulled down one, the Bastille, and the restoration, in 1814, dismantled eight, which were erected by an imperial decree of Napoleon in 1810, viz:—Saumur, Ham, Iff, Lankroun, Pierre-Châtel, Fenestrelle, Compiègne, and Vincennes. During the ephemeral governments of the Committee of Public Safety and the Directory, and even during a few years of Napoleon's reign, the celebrated Temple was the state prison, which was pulled down in 1808, and the state prisoners were then confined at Vincennes.

The prisons throughout the kingdom are under the special direction of the Minister of the Interior, and are paid out of his budget. His delegates are the *préfets;* the gaolers, or governors of the prisons, are called directors. In every city in which a prison is situated, there is an inspector-general, who attends to the proper distribution of the provisions, and sees that they are of good quality; he daily visits the prisons, listen to the complaints of the prisoners, and attends to their comforts.

The prisons are of two sorts: 1st, the departmental prisons, for the confinement of debtors, for persons under trial for crimes, and previous to being brought to trial, as also for those who are condemned to imprisonment, *in modum pœnæ*, for a period less than a year. The total amount of expenses for these prisons is about three and a half millions of francs per annum, which appears in the budget of the Minister of the Interior. The prisons of the second class are nineteen in number, and are called *maisons centrales.* They are destined for the confinement of those who are condemned to more than a year's imprisonment. As no female is sent to the galleys, all such as are condemned to imprisonment are confined in these *maisons centrales.* They are subdivided into two classes, for men and women, as the two sexes are not in general confined in the same prison. In 1827, the number of prisoners in these establishments (*maisons centrales*)

amounted to about 20,000, and, in 1828, they were about 17,000. The expense amounted to upwards of three millions of francs, paid also from the budget of the Minister of the Interior. The reader will not desire that we should enter into a detail of all the prisons in France: we shall confine ourselves to those of Paris, and to two of the *maisons centrales*, which we have visited, for the purpose of showing the discipline, and the regularity with which these establishments are conducted.

Depot at the Prefecture of Police. This place is for the temporary detention of persons arrested, where they remain until they undergo an examination. Till lately, it was a very vile place, but at present there are separate rooms for the prisoners, who are not, as formerly, huddled together without any classification or distinction of persons or of crimes.

La Force. To this prison persons of both sexes are sent, after being committed for trial, where they wait until the sessions commence; they are then sent to the *Conciergerie.*

Conciergerie. This prison is exclusively for persons who are about to take their trial. Immediately after their conviction, they are sent to other prisons; those condemned to death are sent to *Bicêtre*, and are brought back to the *Conciergerie* a few hours previous to their execution. The *Conciergerie* is kept clean; each prisoner has a room to himself; and, what may be considered a luxury to prisoners in France, the rooms are boarded. This prison will ever be memorable, as having been the place of confinement of the unfortunate Marie-Antoinette, Madame Elizabeth, and many other illustrious victims of the revolution.

St.-Lazare. This is decidedly the most commodious and the best prison in Paris; it is here that women only are confined for debt, and for short terms of penal imprisonment. Women condemned to imprisonment for life, or for a longer period than a year, are sent to the *maisons*

centrales. If the *Force* be full, the female prisoners are sent to *St.-Lazare* till their removal to the *Conciergerie*, previous to taking their trial. On visiting this prison, a person might imagine himself in the Magdalen in London, or in a convent. The women are remarkably well behaved, and sing hymns all day, while at their work.

Les Madelonnettes. This prison was formerly for the detention of disorderly women only, who offended against the regulations of the police. Since 1830, the *Madelonnettes* has been pulled down, and the description of women sentenced to confinement are now sent to *St.-Lazare.*

Sainte-Pélagie. This prison is the only one in Paris for male debtors, of which it contains seldom more than 200 at a time. Persons convicted of libel and petty offences are confined at *Ste.-Pélagie*, if sentenced to a year's imprisonment or less, and, if for a longer term, they are sent to the *maisons centrales.*

Poor prisoners are provided by Government with bedding. The rich and the poor must occupy the same room, if the prison be full, the whole being regulated by priority of occupation. Those who have been longest in prison have the best room, for which no charge is made. If a debtor has once had a room to himself, no others can be *chummed* upon him.

L'Abbaye. This prison derives its name from the monks of the ancient abbey of *St.-Germain-des-Prés.* Military men only, accused of military offences, are confined here until they are brought to a court-martial.

Bicêtre. A part of this building is occupied as an hospital and poor-house for men. It was originally built as a palace for the Bishop of Winchester, at the time when the English were masters of Paris. After their departure, it became the property of the Crown. Louis XIII converted this palace into an hospital for military invalids.

The prisoners sent to *Bicêtre* are those condemned to death, or to the galleys, where they remain till they are sent to their ultimate destination.

Many persons suspected of being hostile to Government have been sent to *Bicêtre*, not in that part of the building where felons are, but where the lunatics are confined. In the reign of Napoleon, the celebrated Chevalier de Sade, author of a well-known immoral publication, was many years confined there as a madman, though his intellects were never impaired. And in the early part of Napoleon's rule, the Abbé Fournier was confined four years among the lunatics, in the above establishment, and in every respect, treated as such. He was then sent to a receptacle for lunatics at Nice, where he remained two years. All at once, after having incarcerated the Abbé during six years, he appointed him Bishop of Montpellier. For the truth of this statement, I appeal to M. Desportes, the director of the hospitals of Paris, who had the Abbé under his charge during his confinement in Bicêtre. In a work entitled "*Mémoires sur le Consulat*," from 1799 to 1804, published in Paris in 1828, by the celebrated Thibaudeau, *conseiller d'état* of Buonaparte, M. Thibaudeau relates the following conversation at Malmaison. "The clergy of Paris," said the First Consul, "have been "here to present me a petition which is well drawn up, "in which they complain of an arbitrary act committed "by the Prefect of Police against the Abbé Fournier, "who has been sent to Bicêtre as a madman for preaching "against the Government. I replied to them, 'that the "Prefect had only acted according to the orders of Go-"vernment.' *Entre nous, mon cher*, were I to wear my "coat the wrong side outward; no one has a right to find "fault, much less the priesthood; Fournier is their *cory-"phée*, and they were very much irritated at what has "been done to him. It is a revolutionary act, I admit, but "it is necessary to act thus until we are all settled. I shall "send him to Italy, and recommend him to the Pope." M. Fournier is still bishop of Montpellier.

Having related a despotic act of Napoleon, I cannot pass over one of equal atrocity, which occurred under the Bourbon Government, when M. Anglès was Prefect of

Police, during the Richelieu ministry. In 1828 I visited *Bicêtre*, and on that side where the lunatics are confined, my attention was called by the director of that establishment to an Italian who was walking in the garden, reading very attentively. The director observed to me that he was certain that the unfortunate man was not mad. He said, "that he (the director) had only held his situation about a month, and that from what he saw of the man he was convinced that he was *sane*, although he had been confined as *insane* since 1821." I therefore accosted him, asked his name, his country, etc. He thus replied: "I am a native of Naples; my name is Pisa; I have been in Paris these ten years, and gave lessons in Italian, and translated and composed several works. My brother was the aid-de-camp of general Pépé during the last revolution of Naples. After Napoleon's death, I wrote an elegy on him in Italian. Soon after, I was arrested by order of M. Anglès, the prefect of police, and confined here as a lunatic, where I have been ever since. I have written to my ambassador, but received no answer. It is a wonder that I am not mad, being obliged to live night and day with these unfortunate men." I promised poor Pisa that I would inquire into this affair. I mentioned the subject to M. de Corbière, then Minister of the Home Department, who referred me to M. Franchet, Director of the general police, who immediately wrote to M. Delaveau, then prefect regarding it. The answer was, that "on reference to his registers, he found that a man of the name of Pisa had been arrested as a suspected person; but that he did not know what had become of him, whether he was still in prison, where he was confined, nor if he had been liberated." In short, after a good deal of trouble, I had it settled that the prefect of police was to defray the expenses of Pisa's journey to Marseille, and that the Neapolitan consul, by order of the Neapolitan ambassador, was to pay his expenses to Naples. As the unfortunate man had not a rag to his back, I applied to some of my friends,

and succeeded in raising a small subscription to purchase clothes and other necessaries for him. The *chevalier* Lawrence, of literary fame, accompanied me to *Bicêtre*, and was one of the contributors to the subscription.

Regulations and Discipline.

Prisoners who work at a trade, either in the departmental prisons or in the *maisons centrales*, receive twice a day during five days in the week, *soupe maigre*, made from *haricots, lentilles*, green peas, potatoes, or from rice, with a portion of butter or grease, and vegetables. The rations are as follows :—For 100 prisoners :

30 lbs. of *haricots*, *lentilles* or peas (*légumes secs*).

30 lbs. of carrots, leeks, turnips, parsnips, celery, onions, cabbage or sorrel (these are called *légumes verts*).

4 lbs. of butter or lard.

1 1/2 lb. of salt.

Ration of rice soup for 100 *prisoners.*

24 lbs. of rice.

10 lbs. of dried vegetables.

30 lbs. of green vegetables.

4 lbs. of butter or lard.

1 1/2 lb. of salt.

Ration of potatoe-soup for 100 *persons.*

80 lbs. of potatoes.

10 lbs. of dried vegetables.

30 lbs. of green vegetables.

4 lbs. of butter or lard.

1 1/2 lb. of salt.

These different rations are delivered alternately.

Three days dried vegetables.

One day rice.

One day potatoes.

On Thursdays and Sundays the *working prisoners* receive four ounces of boiled beef of good quality, and without bone; the meat used for one hundred rations is fifty pounds of raw meat, ten pounds of green vegetables, and a sufficient quantity of salt and water to furnish a pint of

soup for each person. The prisoners who do not work receive two-thirds of a quart of soup *maigre*, prepared for one hundred persons from fourteen pounds of dried vegetables, thirty pounds of green vegetables, three pounds of butter or grease, and one pound and a half of salt.

Convalescents receive for the time prescribed the same ration as that distributed to the working prisoners on Thursdays and Sundays. The sick are divided into the following classes: those on diet, those on the quarter of a ration, those on half a ration, those on three-quarters of a ration, and those on full ration. For the sick the ration of meat is fixed at six ounces without bone. The sick placed on the *régime maigre*, instead of meat, receive other food of the kind and quantity prescribed by the medical attendants, such as rice, prunes, vermicelli, eggs, or milk. Convalescents placed on the three-quarters or the half ration receive, if the doctor orders it, two-tenths of a quart of wine per day.

Women who suckle or are in the eighth month of their pregnancy receive daily one pint of *bouillon gras*, eight ounces of boiled meat without bone, and two-tenths of a quart of wine. The prisoners who are sentenced to a long period of confinement work at a trade during the term of their imprisonment, and if they do not know a trade on entering the prison, they are taught one, and are paid for their labour at a fixed price. One third is paid them every five days; one third is reserved for them when they leave the prison; and the remaining third is retained by the Governor of the prison, for which they receive a better allowance of food than those who are waiting to take their trial, and who, not being forced to work, are called *non-travailleurs*. The prisoners are allowed beds, bedding, and clothing by Government. No prisoner can have wine or spirits without permission of the Director; it is then furnished by a canteen in the prison. Each prison has a chapel, and the prisoners attend divine service once a week. The regulations in the prisons for females are in every respect the same as those for the men. Men and

women, as soon as sentenced to imprisonment, are obliged to wear a prison dress: no distinction whatever is made as to the rank or condition of the parties. Children are kept apart from adults, and taught to read and write; are brought up to industrious habits, and receive religious instruction. To all the prisons there are infirmaries attached for the sick, who are attended by medical men of approved skill and talents. Prisoners are allowed to see their friends, by permission of the prefect, through double gratings, similar to those in female convents; and they may also see them in private by special permission of the prefect.

The *maisons centrales* are well conducted. All the prisoners, especially those who are sentenced for a long term, are very diligent in their work. These prisons are kept clean, and the prisoners have a healthy appearance. The two central prisons we visited are those at Poissy and Melun; both are very well conducted.

Average daily expense of a prisoner to Government.
(*In centimes and hundredth parts of a centime.*)

For bread.	13.	94
Meat, etc., etc.	16.	68
Clothing	2.	33
Body linen	1.	25
Stockings and wooden shoes	1.	25
Washing	1.	96
Firing	2.	46
Lights	2.	73
Repair and renewal of furniture . . .	1.	13
Bedding and washing utensils	2.	36
Repairs of stoves	»	28
Medicine, etc.	1.	41
Cleaning of the prison	2.	28
Office expenses	1.	55
Divers petty expenses	»	47
Total. . .	52.	08

52 centimes is a small fraction more than 5 pence English. This estimate may be applied to the central prisons, with little variation.

The prisons of the department of the Seine, on an average, cost annually 600,000 fr. In this department there are no central prisons. Prisoners sentenced to connnement for a term of years are sent to a central prison of a neighbouring department.

Maisons de Santé.—These were first established under the imperial Government, and combine boarding-houses, hospitals, and state prisons. If a state prisoner is in a bad state of health, he could then, and as is the case now, be removed to a *maison de santé;* but the masters of those establishments are answerable for their safe keeping. Debtors can also, under special favour, be removed to a *maison de santé,* all of which are licensed by Government. The monthly charges for each person at these establishments are from 2 to 300 francs, including board, lodging and attendance.

SOCIÉTÉ ROYALE DES PRISONS.

(Royal Society for the amelioration of prisons.)

When the Duke Decazes was Minister of the Home Department, and in that capacity was entrusted with the special direction of all the prisons, he was forcibly impressed with the necessity of adopting measures for ameliorating the wretched state in which he found them, in the metropolis as well as in the departments. To this end, in the year 1819, he made a report to Louis XVIII of the evils existing in these establishments; and, at the same time, submitted a plan to his Majesty for their amelioration which did equal credit to his head and heart. This plan met with the approbation of the generous and enlightened Monarch to whom it was proposed; and in giving it his royal sanction, his Majesty condescended to offer himself as patron of the institution, and approved of the nomination of the Duke d'Angoulême as its president.

Among the original members of the *Société royale des*

prisons, were the Princes de Montmorency—de Broglie—Jules de Polignac—Talleyrand—the dukes de Broglie—de Larochefoucault—de Choiseul—de Cadore—the Marquises d'Aligre—Barbé-Marbois—de Lafayette—Lally-Tolendal—the Counts Chabrol (the one prefect of the department of the Seine, the other ex-minister of marine), —the Counts Daru—Chaptal—Alex. de Laborde—Roy—Mollien—the Barons de Capelle and Pasquier—Cardinal Beausset—the Archbishops of Paris and Bourges—the Bishop of Hermopolis; and of course the worthy founder, with many others of the great names of France most distinguished for their benevolence. The leading object of the institution was that its members should of their own authority be authorised to visit, and enquire into, the wants and abuses that existed in the prisons, and suggest the best means for improving their condition. This was rendered necessary by the state of the law, which does not give even to magistrates the right to visit the prisons, except by the special authority of the Minister of the Interior, or the Prefect of the department. Such an institution, composed of persons having leisure, wealth and political influence, presented at first the most flattering assurances, that the defects in the internal organization and economy of these establishments would be speedily corrected, and wiser regulations adopted. But unfortunately there existed a physical impediment to the great ameliorations required, in the very nature of the buildings themselves. For with the exception of the prison of Saint Lazare for females, and that of the Conciergerie, the other places of confinement even in the Metropolis are little better than old dismal buildings, wretchedly ill adapted to promote the comfort, or even provide for the health of the prisoners.

The novelty of this benevolent institution gave at first a certain degree of energy to its members. In the first year 200,000 fr. were subscribed: but since that period we have heard nothing of its revenues. From the members of the society the Minister of the Interior was to

choose twenty-four persons, who were to be approved of by the King, to form a council who were to meet once a week, and communicate the result of their deliberations to the minister. In the departments similar councils were to be chosen from among the members of the society, and were to assemble under the presidency either of the *préfet* or *sous-préfet*, the president of the *cour royale*, or the attorney-general, who might be admitted as honorary members. These departmental committees were required to be in regular correspondence with the principal society in Paris. The labours of the administrative council of the society were allotted as follows, viz. Four or five were to have the general administration of the prisons, the same number were to correspond with the departments, and a similar number were to have the direction of what relates to the health of the prisoners, the care of their religious and moral instruction, and the distribution of labour. A member of the commission was to be appointed to each prison, to listen to the complaints of the prisoners, and correct all abuses of arbitrary authority or improper supplies of food, etc. Each prison of Paris was also placed under the direction of a member of the council.

All active measures however ceased several years ago. It is true some salutary improvements have been made; privies and sewers have been constructed, which did not exist before, and other material improvements have been made which have contributed much to the salubrity of the prisons. The plan of the noble founder was in itself a good one, but, from some cause or other, it has not been followed up; for after the Duke Decazes quitted office the council met only once a-year, instead of once a week, as was originally intended. The Viscount de Martignac, when at the head of the Home Department, appeared disposed to restore it to its pristine state, if we may judge from his speech at the anniversary meeting which was held immediately on his coming into office. But previous to this last meeting, which was in February

1828, there had not been one held for three years. We have read, indeed, in the newspapers of meetings of the society at the *palace of the Tuileries*, to talk over what ought to be done to effect the object proposed. But a palace is not perhaps the most suitable place for the discussion of such affairs as ought to fall under the consideration of this society. Their meetings should at least have been public, so as to give an opportunity to every one to deliver his opinion, to suggest wise regulations, and thus encourage the public to come forward with their subscriptions.

We have not heard that there has been any disposition on the part of the new *liberal philanthropic* Government of 1830 to restore this society to its primitive state. Indeed the prisons of Paris have never been so crowded, from the fall of Robespierre, as they have been since the revolution of 1830: it would therefore be an Herculean task to attend to them. And it must be observed that the greater part of the prisoners are not Carlists, but those who contributed to the downfall of the late Government!

THE GALLEYS.

France having no penal colonies, the chief secondary punishment is condemnation to hard labour in the principal sea ports, either in floating hulks (*Bagnes*), or in prisons on shore. These establishments are known in England by the name of galleys; as we have elsewhere observed, they are under the jurisdiction of the minister of marine. Although there is only a charge (as appears in the minister's budget) of 312,425 fr. for the service of 1829, for clothing, etc., etc., the gross amount of the expense of the galley slaves, etc., is stated at 2,625,000 fr. per annum, for upwards of nine thousand galley slaves. The difference represents the deduction made for the labour of the convicts; so that the annual nett cost to government for each man is about 35 fr.

The sea-ports to which convicts are sent are Toulon, Brest, Rochefort and Lorient; the latter was for the military, but lately they have been sent to the other *Bagnes*. On the arrival of the prisoners at these places, their heads are shaved in a peculiar manner, and they are compelled to change their clothes for the *costume* worn in the *Bagnes*. All these are situated in the royal dock yards, which are surrounded by high walls, and are fortified. The convicts condemned for ten years are sent to Toulon, and those for twenty years or for life to Brest or Rochefort indiscriminately. When at work, the convicts are generally coupled together with irons from 18 to 22 lbs. weight. In the wards on shore, each of which contains six hundred, the convicts lie on camp bedsteads; and on board the hulks, in berths made of planks one above another: none have more than eighteen inches to lie in. At night the convicts for life are chained to their bedsteads. They go to their labour at sunrise throughout the year: they have their meals twice a day; in the morning at half-past eleven, and return to work at one; at eight at night they have their supper and retire to bed. The allowance of food to each convict consists of a ration of bread weighing 917 *grammes* (about 2 lb. English), or 300 *grammes* of sea biscuit. They receive also 48-100ths of a litre of wine—about an English pint; also a portion of soup made with dried beans, but without any allowance of animal food. On the days when they do not work they are not allowed wine. When sick, they are sent to the hospital destined for the convicts only (1).

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(1) In England convicts on board the hulks are better fed. *In the instructions given by Sir Robert Peel, in* 1828, *to the superintendant of the several ships and vessels for the confinement of offenders under sentence of transportation in England*, we find the following scale of rations, which we may truly say is a rational allowance. Daily allowance to every boy confined on board the Bay convict hulk: One pound of bread, 7 oz. of *beef*, 6 oz. of oatmeal, 3/4 of a lb. of potatoes and 1/2 oz. of salt, Saturdays excepted, which is a banyan day, and 3 oz. of cheese is substituted for 7 oz. of meat, and no potatoes

16..

The clothing, etc., of a convict is: A blanket every four years; a red woollen cap every twenty months, and once a year two shirts, two pairs of pantaloons of coarse red cloth, and a surtout of the same colour. A green woollen cap for those condemned for life, one of green woollen with a red border for those who have attempted to escape: the others wear caps entirely red: to these caps is attached a badge or tin plate on which is his number. On their arrival at the *Bagne* they receive a pair of strong new shoes (1).

Employment of the convicts.

Within the last six or seven years, a number of hydraulic and other constructions have been raised in the port of Toulon, and although at little cost, the results have been great and important. Formerly the convicts were employed only in excessive hard labour, from which no advantage whatever was derived. At present the state of things is quite changed; the different trades of mason, stonecutter, carpenter, shipwright, blacksmith, are gradually taught the convicts, by means of mutual apprenticeship, under the inspection of proper foremen. The greater part of the convicts for life are now skilful and good workmen; they are either employed in day-work or task-work; in the first case they are paid from 5 to 20 centimes, that is, from a halfpenny to twopence a day, which enables them to purchase tobacco, or to buy more

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are allowed. Daily allowance to every adult convict on board the hulks: 4 oz. of barley, 3 oz. of oatmeal, 1 lb. of soft bread, 4 oz. of biscuit, 14 oz. *of beef*, on Sundays, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays. On the other days of the week, 4 oz. of cheese are substituted for the ration of meat. Half an ounce of salt, and one pint of small beer daily.

(1)-The following is the clothing allowance to the English convicts on board the hulks: 2 jackets, 3 pair of breeches, 3 shirts, 4 pair of stockings, 3 pair of shoes, 2 hats, 2 neck-handkerchiefs, 1 waistcoat, and 1 blanket annually: and 1 Guernsey frock once in two years, if the prisoners stand in need thereof; but on no account is a convict allowed to wear any other than the convict's *costume*.

substantial food than their ordinary rations. They are even allowed once a month to form themselves into squads, and, by adding each a certain portion of his earning, they have a pic-nic, at which all their sorrows are drowned in boisterous merriment. The more their earnings serve to procure these enjoyments, the more they dread to be deprived of them, as idleness or disobedience is often punished by a diminution of their wages or their forfeiture altogether. In addition to their ordinary pay, a supplement equal to one third of their earnings is laid by in reserve for them, until the expiration of the term of their sentence. At the period of their leaving the *Bagne,* the amount of this reserve is paid to them, in addition to which they receive a complete suit of clothing according to their situation or trade. For the convicts for life there is of course no fund of reserve.

The misery and depravity in these receptacles cannot be described.

ANECDOTES.

The personal history and adventures of a few inmates of the receptacles of vice, might better perhaps be consigned to some parallel to the Newgate Calendar, than be offered as an illustration of the statistics of crime and punishment. The following, however, will perhaps be accepted by the reader as a relief from the dry details with which he has hitherto been occupied. As titled persons have always precedence, we shall begin with the history of the Count Pontes de Ste.-Helena, a well-known *robber without diplomacy!*

This man's name is Cognard; his parents were honest industrious people, and gave him a decent education, which did not however prevent his quitting the paternal roof to become a robber. For some offence he was condemned to the galleys at Toulon for ten years, and branded. From thence he made his escape into Spain, where he joined the French army in 1809. He remained there till the conclusion of the war, having by his bravery

and abilities obtained the rank of major-general in the army and the decoration of the Legion of Honour. Knowing that a Frenchman of the name of Count Pontes de Ste.-Helena had died in Spain without heirs, he usurped his name and title. On his return to France after the peace, he remained in the army. In 1819 he came with his regiment to Paris, where he had been about eight or nine months, when a circumstance took place which tarnished the blushing honours of *Monsieur le Comte*. In a riot which took place in the streets of Paris, the general, who had always been considered a *sabreur*, struck an individual with the back of his sword; the man looking him in the face, at once recognized him as a brother convict at Toulon. He immediately gave information to the police, who kept a strict eye upon him, and he was discovered to be the person. Government would probably not have punished the *soi-disant* Count for having escaped from the galleys; but the police discovered that the noble Count had not forgot his old habits, as it appeared he was at the head of a band of robbers, and, profiting from his easy access into houses of the first distinction, he carried on for a time his depredations even on the property of his hosts, with a dexterity that frustrated the keenest observation of the agents of the police. He had a *maitresse* whom he passed off for his sister, and who was his accomplice in his robberies. On these fresh charges he was convicted and sentenced to the galleys at Brest for life.

Gasparini.

At Rochefort there is a convict, a native of Italy, whose ingenuity in putting travellers under contribution might have furnished the facetious *Grimaldi* himself with a banditti scene in a pantomime. This *hero* was for some years the *Turpin* of France, and was much dreaded by travellers. *Gasparini*, though guilty of many robberies on the highway, has never been accused of wanton cruelty. He some years ago under-

took alone to stop a diligence as it was passing at night-fall through a wood; here he drew up his forces, which literally consisted, not of bloody-minded robbers, but of half a dozen of well stuffed coats, fixed on poles, with formidable caps, presented arms and other appendages well suited to inspire the travellers with terror. When the diligence arrived, he ordered the postilion to stop; he then made the conductor and the passengers alight, and in a resolute tone, pointing to his supposed companions, whom he had ranged on the skirts of the wood, desired the trunks to be opened, out of which he took what he thought proper. He then said to the trembling travellers:—"Don't be alarmed, gentlemen; "allow me to take what I require, and depend on it my "troops shall not advance a step further; from them, I as- "sure you, you have nothing to fear." This modern *Rolando* was sentenced to hard labour for life in the galleys. It appeared on the trial, that when the gendarmes went to scour the wood, they were not a little surprised to find half a dozen robbers, who appeared determined to stand their ground: they summoned them to surrender, and on receiving no reply, fired a volley, and then attacked the *Manikins* sword in hand: of course they met with but feeble resistance, and laughed heartily at the joke!

Collette, a soi-disant *bishop.*

This *right reverend* robber was born of poor parents, and was brought up in a convent. As a lay brother he accompanied a bishop into Italy, where he remained a considerable time. He at length quitted Italy, and contrived to make a booty of the bishop's robes, and returned to France. He passed himself off for his patron, visited several dioceses; and acted his part so well, that for a length of time he profited by his assumed *holy* character, and, though without revenues, managed to make a respectable appearance. He however fell under the suspicion of the police of Bonaparte, was arrested, and tried

for forgery (having signed the name of the bishop he lived with), and was sent to the galleys for life!

The following is his own account of himself. "I was "brought up by a priest, but I cannot enter on the details "of all my intrigues prior to my filling the functions of "a bishop. I was led to the performance of this high "character by the most extraordinary circumstances, and "so long as I held this dignity I did all the good which "lay in my power. I gave alms, I allowed the poor to "approach me with facility. My vicars-general some-"times were dissatisfied at my liberality; as they found "I became too popular. I was desirous of visiting the "sick and distressed, but the Chapter represented to me "that I might dispense with this trouble, by reposing on "its zeal and its desire to merit my benediction. These "good priests were excellent courtiers; they anticipated "all my wants, and even excited in my mind new desires. "Finding it was so easy a burden to bear the mitre and "crosier, I made my mind up to retain my post as long as "it was possible." Being asked if he found no difficulty in fulfilling all the duties attached to the ceremonies of the church, "—Not in the least," he answered. "I always took "special care to speak in a very low voice; and you know, "when one is a bishop the clergy as well as the laity find "that we do every thing to admiration; and even one day "that I ordained a number of young *seminarists*, I felt not "the slightest embarrassment. My vicars, surrounding "me, anticipated all that was necessary to be done by me; "and, by my faith, I managed the affair very well. At "night, I gave a sumptuous dinner, and I can assure you "that not one of my visitors even entertained an idea "that I had been wanting in the solemnity. On the con-"trary, they praised my serious deportment, the dignity "with which I gave my benediction; nay, they even ex-"tolled my physiognomy, although you see it is none of "the happiest."

STATE OF THE PUBLIC PRESS.

In France, prior to the revolution, there were only two daily newspapers published in Paris, viz. the *Gazette de France*, which was the official paper, and the *Journal de Paris*; there was also a daily paper exclusively for advertisements, and there was a similar publication in each province. On the breaking out of the Revolution, Paris became inundated with newspapers: the first was established by the celebrated Barrère, with the striking title of *le Point du Jour*. There were also newspapers called *Journaux-Affichés*, which were in the form of a large sheet of paper, printed on one side, and were stuck up against the walls, for the gratuitous information of those good citizens who could not afford to pay for political knowledge. This propagandist plan was committed to the care of Mirabeau, Condorcet, Rœderer, Brissot, Gorsas, and Roland, who were all actively employed *pour travailler l'opinion publique*. Let not the reader, however, imagine that because the number of newspapers increased, the unrestricted liberty of circulating opinions made similar progress; newspapers, on the contrary, were denounced, the presses seized, and the editors and other persons employed on them imprisoned, at every epoch and during the reign of every faction of the so-called Republic! Yet from 1789 till the republic was formally proclaimed in 1792, there was something like liberty of the press in France. At the latter period, that country bade adieu to all that resembled freedom. Marat, the *gentle* Marat (and he was mild and gentle compared with other savages who afterwards ruled the destinies of France), hunted down in his journal whatever opposed his anarchical views: individuals were denounced as traitors, without any proof having been alleged against them; pillage was preached up as necessary to the support of the Revolution. Thus the liberty of the press was all on one side -

on that of the Government! After the fall of the Brissotine party, the newspaper editors were obliged to send proofs even of the debates in the Convention to the leading members of Government, in order that they might have the opportunity of expunging from or adding what they pleased to the speeches they had made; so that it frequently happened that the printed speech bore the slightest possible resemblance to that which had been delivered.

In those *happy* days of French republicanism, the idea was first suggested of having double sets of newspapers. Those that were transmitted to foreign countries were different in all respects from those which were intended for domestic circulation. For instance, in the reign of terror and blood, every thing was described in the one set of papers, in strong, glowing, and cheerful colours. Now certainly the then rulers of France could not with any face tell the people of that country that they were happy, whilst almost every individual had to mourn the death of a murdered parent or a departed friend! After the fall of Robespierre, Real (afterwards counsellor of State of Bonaparte), Babœuf, and others set up a paper against the Government with the title of *Journal de l'Opposition*, whilst Fréron and others were at the head of the newspapers in its support. During the Government of the Directory, there was, it must be allowed, a great deal of free writing, indeed too much so that it had degenerated into unrestrained licentiousness. The most violent journals were the *Quotidienne*, the *Miroir*, *les Actes des Apôtres*, *les Nouvelles Politiques*, which opposed Government and supported the cause of royalty, whilst the *Journal des Hommes Libres* (nick-named *Journal des Tigres*), *l'Ami des Lois*, etc., attacked the Government as being too moderate! All these were avowed *jacobins enragés*; the *Journal des Hommes Libres* being edited by the foreman of Robespierre's jury of the revolutionary tribunal, of the name of *Antonelle*, a *ci-devant noble*; and the *Ami des Lois* by a jacobin monk of the name of *Poultier*.

They called each other the most opprobrious names. But the best written paper of that period was the *Quotidienne:* had the original impressions of that journal been sent to England, I am persuaded that the number of the partisans of the French revolution would have been greatly diminished. The Directory were well aware of this; the newspapers were all examined, and if they contained any thing offensive to the Government, they were reprinted, the obnoxious article was left out and some harmless matter substituted in its place. A singular discovery of that nature was made at Berlin, in the year 1796. A paper written in French, called *le Courrier du Bas-Rhin*, published at Wesel, a town of Westphalia, belonging to Prussia, had in one of its numbers an article containing some severe strictures on the conduct of the Directory, which was given as an extract from the French papers. M. Caillard, the French Minister at Berlin, complained to the Prussian Government, and demanded the punishment of the editor; the article in question had been copied from a French paper, printed and published under the very eye of Government, yet the French Minister called for punishment against the copyist. Citizen Caillard produced a file of the *Quotidienne*, which was the name of the paper from which the extract was alleged, and truly alleged, to have been made; but the *Quotidiennes* of M. Caillard were those reprinted for foreign use. The article in question was of course not found there; but the journalist of Wesel on his part produced an *original Quotidienne*, which he received through some irregular channel from Paris. The editor was nevertheless fined three hundred rix-dollars, and his paper suspended for three months—thus evincing in what a state of servile submission the Prussian Government then was to France. A full account of this curious case was given in the *Quotidienne* of the 10th February 1797.

Mr. Poncelin, the editor of the *Courrier Républicain*, printed at Paris, experienced most disgraceful

treatment from the director Barras. That paper contained an article which displeased the director: he sent for the editor, had him stripped naked and whipped, and sent him home with pain and disgrace on his back. The journalist was not disposed to suffer in silence; but Barras paid him a large sum of money to have the matter hushed.

The *triumviri*, however, soon discovered that the liberty of the press would not answer their purpose. After the 18th *Fructidor*, the period when they sent general Pichegru, the director Barthélemy and others, to Cayenne, no less than thirty-four newspapers were suppressed, the proprietors, editors, printers, compositors and pressmen deported, and the presses destroyed. — *Vive la liberté!*

Soon after Bonaparte's assumption of power, he suppressed eighteen Paris journals, and among the number the *Journal des Hommes Libres*, because it inserted a *plaisanterie* played off by Talleyrand on Bonaparte on his assuming the Consulate. Bonaparte had mentioned to Talleyrand that he was fond of shooting and hunting, and asked if he had any game on his estate at Neuilly? Never having heard that his new master indulged in field sports, or in shooting or hunting any but his own species, Talleyrand replied that he had abundance of rabbits and wild ducks. A *rendez-vous de chasse* was given, and Napoleon arrived at Neuilly to enjoy the promised sport. As there was not a head of game on the whole of his property, the bishop had some tame animals procured, which he put in the way of his guest; but instead of the rabbits running away from the consular huntsman, they came and licked his boots. The story was told as of an Oriental prince, and Talleyrand was called the minister *Pantakaka*, a Greek word which signifies the ready instrument of all evil. For this indiscretion the journal was suppressed, and the editor sent to rusticate in the provinces.

That the press, so much dreaded by all arbitrary monarchs, was peculiarly so by Bonaparte, cannot be won-

dered at; not merely because he was afraid that it would criticise the acts of his Government, but still more so perhaps because he did not like to be reminded of his original obscurity. THEMISTOCLES declined the offer of SIMONIDES, to teach him the art of reminiscence, observing, "that he would prefer a lesson of oblivion, as he found "it more difficult to forget the things which displeased "him than to remember all the scenes of his life which "afforded him satisfaction."

Bonaparte knew perfectly well that if there was any thing like the freedom of the press in France, he should not long be able to keep his seat; he would in fact have been driven away by epigrams, *calembourgs* and *jeux d'esprit*, means more powerful in France than even that resistless eloquence which wielded at will the fierce democracy, "and fulmined over Greece to Asia, and Ar- "taxerxes' throne." In France, *c'est le ridicule qui tue.*

Soon after the 18th Brumaire, he sent for M. de Lafayette, and offered him a situation under the new Government; to which he received for answer, "that if he "would allow the freedom of the press, and the law of "*habeas corpus*, he, Lafayette, would willingly serve "under him." To this Bonaparte replied, and as I believe truly: "M. de Lafayette, were I to permit the "liberty of the press in France, neither you nor I would "be here three months hence."

It is incredible how sore the Goyernment felt at the most trivial paragraph in a newspaper. As an instance, I may mention that an article had appeared in an English journal, stating it as a report "that the French had "landed at Dover, and that the troops on hearing of "it had cried out *huzza*, and were in hopes of giving a "good account of the invaders." This notice appeared in the *Publiciste*, in the form of a faithful translation. The next day, an article was inserted in the *Gazette de France*, accusing the editor of the *Publiciste* of disaffection, and stating that when the English troops cried out *huzza*, it was not in the sense of *vivat*, as the *Publiciste*

had translated it, but, on the contrary, that *huzza* implied an appeal to the mercy of a conqueror, and might better be rendered by the interjection "*hélas!*" Next day the *Publiciste* exposed the ignorance of the *Gazette*, and, in proof of it, quoted the meaning of the disputed word as given in Boyer's Dictionary. On this, Bonaparte interfered, and sent an article to be inserted in the *Moniteur*, saying "that the editor of the *Publiciste* was "an ignorant fool, and that he ought to know that the "same word may very well have two meanings. But," continued Bonaparte, "his malevolence is known, as well "as his attachment to the corrupting gold of England, "etc." This very article the *Publiciste* was *obliged* to copy the following day, a species of tyranny to which the imperial Government resorted, and occasionally with some ingenious improvements. Thus an article was sometimes sent to an editor of one of the minor papers for insertion; the next day the *Moniteur* abused him for it, after which he was obliged to copy the article written against himself.

All this was what the French call *mystification*. Its object was, when mischief was meditated, and when it was desirable that the power against whom the blow was intended should be kept in ignorance of his designs, that these designs should be most effectually concealed. For this purpose an article would be fabricated in the harshest terms, imputing hostile views to the intended victims, such as "that they had given false statements of their "proceedings, but that in truth they were arming or "were giving encouragement to the English, etc." This article was sent to some of the minor newspapers, in which it was inserted, as copied from a foreign continental journal. The next day the *Moniteur* attacked the article alluded to, and accused the editor of being in the pay of the English Government, and this tirade the editor was obliged to copy, although an unjust attack on his own character. Bonaparte's object in these manœuvres was to convey an idea of his own pacific intentions, and lull the power he proposed to attack into a dangerous state of security.

For the most trifling article a journalist was sent to prison. A speech of Sir Francis Burdett, relating to some new law in Ireland about her militia, appeared in the Paris *Argus*. As this speech contained a powerful attack on the military system, it was not well suited to the meridian of Paris; orders were therefore sent to all the newspapers not to copy the article from the *Argus*. The *Courrier de l'Europe* received the order too late, the paper containing the article having been already printed and published; and the editor, M. Salgues, was in consequence sent to Bicêtre for three months.

M. Suard, the editor and proprietor of the *Publiciste*, made an extract from a book which had been written in 1798, giving an account of the horrors committed by the French in Switzerland. Now, strange to say, this old man Suard, a perpetual member of the national Institute, and member of the Legion of Honour, was threatened to be sent for six months to the lunatic asylum at Charenton, and his paper was actually taken from him; for which he received, as an indemnity, a pension of 600 liv. a year. In fact, it was at that time no easy task to conduct a newspaper in France; for any public functionary who thought himself aggrieved by an article inserted in it, immediately complained to the police, and if the prefecture condemned, the other police would on the contrary approve of the article, and *vice versâ*.

Till the period of Napoleon's elevation to the imperial dignity, the newspapers, with the exception of the *Moniteur*, were all in the hands of private individuals, and although as much enslaved as they could well be, still Government had no direct concern in them. It was only after publication that they were sent to the police, so that an indiscreet or an ill intentioned article might have crept in, and have done mischief. It is true, the editor and proprietor were exposed to the chance of an involuntary visit to Cayenne, or to a lodging in the Temple, and their fears made them cautious.

Napoleon, however, in order to put an end to all

these schisms, thought proper to take into his own hands *all the newspapers in Paris*, and to dispose of them as he thought proper. The particulars of this new species of robbery may not be uninteresting to the English reader. The *Journal des Débats*, which was ordered to change its title into that of the *Journal de l'Empire*, had the greatest circulation; it was not less than 20,000 a day; this paper was decidedly hostile to the Government, and wrote invariably against republican principles, a circumstance which to the initiated will sufficiently account for its great circulation. It belonged to four proprietors, but Bonaparte took the lion's share to himself, and left the *fourth* part to be divided among the original owners.

The *Publiciste* was M. Suard's sole property, which was entirely taken from him, his plunderers allowing him the pension already mentioned, while those who were intrusted with the management of the paper were ordered never to insert any article of *his*.

The *Journal de Paris*, which belonged to Messrs. Rœderer and Maret, now Duke of Bassano, remained in their hands; but, although ministers of Bonaparte, they were obliged, like all the others, to take an editor in chief, appointed *by Government*, but *paid by the proprietors*, at the rate of 36,000 francs per annum.

The *Gazette de France* belonged exclusively to a M. Bellmare; when taken from him, he received as an indemnity the appointment of commissary general of police at Antwerp.

The *Citoyen Français* was compelled to change its name to that of the *Courrier Français*; but no attack was made on the property, as it was absolutely valueless.

The *Clef du Cabinet*, the *Courrier des Spectacles*, and the *Journal des Défenseurs de la Patrie*, belonged to eight individuals; the three journals were consolidated into one under the title of the *Courrier de l'Europe*, and only *one fourth* interest was given to the *eight proprietors*.

The *Moniteur*, which belonged to Government, of course remained as it was.

The *Décade Philosophique*, which appeared every ten days, was principally devoted to literature. The proprietors were the celebrated GUINGUÉNÉ and AMAURY DUVAL men of known and extraordinary merit. They were obliged to join their paper to the *Mercure de France*, to which Châteaubriand and Bonald were then regular contributors. The original proprietors of the *Décade* were allowed a salary as sub-editors; but the editor in chief, M. Legouvé, was appointed by Government.

My own paper, the *Argus*, the first English print ever published in France, deserves in this place a passing notice.

In the month of October 1802, having then been a year resident in Paris, General Duroc requested me to be at Malmaison the following morning, at 8 o'clock, as the FIRST CONSUL wanted to see me. I attended the summons. The Consul said, "I wish to have an English paper "published at Paris; have you any objection to "undertake such a charge?" I had already been three times with Bonaparte, and therefore knew what his ideas were about the liberty of the press. I declined the offer in respectful terms. "Ah! bah!" said Napoleon, "you "shall write as you please, and be free of control; I have "already arranged the affair with Talleyrand; go and see "him immediately." To reason or expostulate with Napoleon was quite out of the question; he rang his bell, and bowed me out of his presence. On my way to citizen Talleyrand, who then resided in the rue du Bac, I called on my friend the celebrated Joel Barlow, who lived not far from the Foreign Office. When I mentioned on what errand I was going to Talleyrand, Mr. Barlow recommended me in strong terms to have nothing to do with that man; and, by way of enforcing his advice, assured me that if I did not follow it, I should repent it as long as I lived. He added some reflections on the minister's character not quite so flattering as those which have lately been lavished on him by noble Whigs, and noble Tories too, in the House of Lords.

However, I mustered resolution and went to the citizen Minister. I had often seen him before, and he had always been civil to me. "Well," said he, "you know what the "Consul wants; so set about it as soon as possible. Go- "vernment will subscribe for 400 or 500 copies of the "paper if it be properly conducted." My answer was, "*Je* "*ne loue pas et je ne vends pas ma plume pour de l'ar-* "*gent.*"—"*Allons donc,*" said the minister; "*vous* "*parlez comme un niais,*" adding that I should write as I pleased, that I should have no censor, and should not be subject to the restrictions of the police.

After great trouble in getting up the paper, the difficulty of which was greatly increased by the total want of English printers or compositors at Paris, the *Argus* made its appearance in the month of November 1802; from which period it began to be published three times a week. A very few numbers however had appeared, when a man of the name of André, who could scarcely read English, was set over me as censor. This man, who bore the *alias* of d'Arbelles, was what is termed in French "*une âme* "*damnée*" of the citizen Minister. He brought me articles from the Foreign Office, already written in English, which I declined to insert. Some of them were addressed to the seamen of the British navy, and to the people of Ireland, to excite them to revolt and rebellion; others consisted of miserable unfeeling reflections on the unfortunate malady with which George III was occasionally afflicted.

I not only incurred the displeasure of the Minister for refusing to insert his communications, but also for having written articles in the *Argus* which did not exactly coincide with the views of M. Talleyrand. I frequently complained to the First Consul and to the Minister himself of the breach of our engagement, respecting the promised independence of the paper; but, after conducting the *Argus* about four months, and editing forty-nine numbers, the paper was violently taken out of my hands. A day or two afterwards, those very articles I had re-

fused to insert were published in it; and, shortly after their appearance, it was announced in all the French journals, that in consequence of my having written in violent terms against the king of England personally, and against the British government, I had been removed from the management, and the editorship had been confided to other hands.

On the very day that my connexion with the *Argus* had thus been abruptly terminated, I waited on our ambassador Lord Whitworth, and informed his Excellency, in the presence of Mr. Mandeville, one of the secretaries, now first secretary of embassy at Constantinople, of the real cause of my quarrel with the Minister for Foreign Affairs, and showed him the articles in manuscript, as they came from the *Hôtel des Affaires Étrangères,* which I refused to insert; consequently, when they afterwards appeared in the *Argus,* Lord Whitworth knew that I stood *rectus in curia.*

After the foul charge brought against me, I addressed a letter to all the newspapers, stating that when those articles, attributed to me, were published in the *Argus,* I was no longer its editor. Two papers only, the *Publiciste* and the *Gazette de France,* inserted my letter.

A day or two after my letter had appeared in the papers, I was arrested; and, after having been confined three days in a dungeon at the prefecture of police, I was placed in the hands of a police agent to be sent to Dieppe, in order to be there embarked for England. Here I may observe, that my appearance in England, at that period, might have been attended with some inconveniences, in consequence of the notice some of my former writings had attracted—a fact which was perfectly well known to M. Talleyrand. I had already cleared the port of Dieppe, when a signal was made from the outer harbour for the vessel, which was French, to return. The sous-prefect having ascertained that I was on board, informed me that he had just received a courier from Paris from the Grand-Judge, desiring him to transmit to Mr. Goldsmith the

intentions of Government respecting him, which were that he was perfectly free to go where he pleased, but that it was desired that he should go to Paris as soon as possible.

To Paris I did go; and, soon after my arrival, was requested by the First Consul to go to him immediately. He informed me that all the *désagrémens* I had experienced originated with that *coquin* Talleyrand; that, as soon as he was told that I had been in prison, he desired the prefect of police and the grand-judge to set me at liberty; and when he heard, that, instead of obeying his orders, I had been sent off to Dieppe, he had sent for the prefect, the grand-judge, and Talleyrand, and after having *lavé leur tête*, he ordered them to send 100 couriers after me if necessary; and that if I were not brought back to Paris, he would have them all three put to death. What the First Consul told me was not the invention of the moment; he had really put himself to some trouble on the subject and even lately Count Dubois, who was then prefect, has repeated what took place between the First Consul and the other persons above named. This, however, is not the proper place for examining the motives of M. Talleyrand for opposing the wishes of the First Consul. These motives are not unknown to me, but an opportunity will arise for their investigation.

From the time my connexion ceased with the *Argus*, it became one of the organs of Government. The leading articles were written in French at the Foreign Office, and translated into English: all the expenses were defrayed by that Office. Napoleon, however, thought the *Argus* afterwards too expensive, and it ceased in 1810.

Having thus assured himself of the papers of his own metropolis, Bonaparte contrived other means to propagate his views elsewhere.

In Spain, where the French language is little understood, he thought it necessary, before he began his career of robbery in that unfortunate country, to turn public

opinion in some degree in his favour, and to make the "miserable" Spaniards acquainted with the happiness he had reserved for "*les enfans de la grande famille.*" For this purpose he had a newspaper, called *l'Abeja*, printed in Paris in the Spanish language. Its introduction into Spain was at first prohibited by the Government of that country; but they were at length obliged to consent to its admission.

Before the war in Germany in 1805, Bonaparte attempted to corrupt Doctor Stuver, the editor of the *Hamburgh Correspondenten*, but found it impossible; nor could his purpose at that time be accomplished by force, as Hamburgh was yet an independent city. Upon one occasion, however, during the discussions with England, previous to the commencement of the war in 1803, he induced the Senate to order the insertion of a libel against the English Government. But the difficulties he experienced in the first attempt prevented him from renewing it till he became master of Hamburgh; as, besides the resistance he met with from the firmness of the editor, he had also to gain the censor appointed by the Senate, whose duty it was to examine the different articles and judge of their admissibility. Thus foiled, he had recourse to the following stratagem. He established a printing press at Aix-la-Chapelle, under the direction of a German of the name of Haussner, and there reprinted, or rather counterfeited, the *Hamburgh Correspondenten*; and by bribing all the post-offices in Germany (or at least having a clerk in his pay in the post-office of every town of any consequence), he found no difficulty in getting the fictitious substituted for the genuine *Correspondenten*. By forging the Hamburgh arms, and by the closeness with which the paper, typography, and general appearance of the journal were imitated, it became a very tolerable *fac-simile* of the original.

Thus far as to the state of the periodical press. But Bonaparte was equally sensitive on the subject of books; as the following instances will show.

M. Dureau de la Malle, the elegant translator of Tacitus, presented Bonaparte with a copy of his work; on which the latter observed, that there were already too many translations of that author, and said that he thought him *un factieux*. "You would have done better," he added, "to have made critical notes on his works and on those of Suetonius, animadverting with a proper degree of severity on the delight they took in speaking ill of crowned heads. I do not think that Nero, after all, was so *bad a man* as he is called."

A new edition of the Classics was printed in 1807, but all passages alluding to tyrants, and to their untimely end, were carefully suppressed.

He said once to the celebrated M. FONTANES, who occasionally wrote in the *Mercure de France*: "You spoke well of a work (which he named), and in consequence I was induced to read it." To which M. Fontanes observed, in reply that it was written by a young man of good family. "Stuff!" said Bonaparte, "Voltaire had no illustrious ancestors;" and added, in his own sententious style, "*Laissez-nous, au moins,* M. Fontanes, *la république des lettres.*"

But his hypocrisy shewed itself in a more conspicuous manner on the following occasion:

The late amiable and elegant dramatic author, M. Colin d'Harleville, had written a five act comedy, called "*les Riches,*" in which several allusions were made to the class of *parvenus* and upstarts, which in revolutionary France was not likely to be received with much indulgence. The pruning knife of the censor mutilated the piece to such a degree that the author himself scarcely knew his own offspring, and in consequence declined presenting it to the managers for representation. The police, however, allowed him to publish the drama in its original state, as not likely to produce that lively contempt for the upstart court which its appearance on the stage might have effected: the play was advertised in the *Journal de l'Empire,* with a notice that the permission of

the minister, and of the prefect of police, were duly affixed to it, and that it was published verbatim as originally written. This happened in January 1805, when Bonaparte was at Vienna. In consequence of the advertisement, he caused a paragraph to be inserted in the *Moniteur* of the 9th February to the following effect: —

'It is stated in the *Journal de l'Empire* of Tuesday, 'that the following words are printed at the end of a 'new comedy, which M. Colin d'Harleville has com- 'prised in the collection of his works: "Seen, approved "of, and the impression permitted to be sold, conform- "ably to a decree by his excellency the minister for "the general police of the empire, dated the 9th of the "month of prairial, in the year XIII. By order of his "excellency the chief of the division for the liberty of "the press.

"(*Signed*) P. LAGARDE."

'His Majesty has been much surprised to learn, by 'this article, that so excellent an author as M. Colin 'd'Harleville found it necessary to procure permission 'to print a work which bears his name. *There exists no 'censorship in France* (1). Every French citizen may 'publish whatever work he thinks proper, provided he 'be answerable for its contents. No book can be sup- 'pressed, and no author can be prosecuted, even though 'the writing contain matter injurious to the rights of 'sovereignty or to the public interest, unless by law, 'or by a decree of his Majesty. We should fall into a 'strange situation indeed, if a mere agent were permitted 'to arrogate to himself the right of preventing a book 'from being printed, or of compelling an author to strike 'out of it, or to add to it, any thing which he thought 'proper. *Freedom of thought is the most important*

(1) There certainly was no *censor*, but a person, as responsible editor, was placed by Government in every newspaper office, which amounts in effect pretty nearly to the same thing.

'*acquisition of the present era—the Emperor is, there-*
'*fore, anxious that it be preserved entire;* it is only
'necessary, in using this liberty, that it be not done
'either to the prejudice of morals, or to the rights of the
'supreme authority; and as none but the most depraved
'writers would wish to carry it farther, none but the
'weakest princes would tolerate a freedom destructive
'to the foundations of social order, and to the tran-
'quillity of citizens. Liberty and civilisation exist only
'between extremes; it is therefore between extremes
'that Government and the Legislature should exist.'

This sort of *liberty of writing* is much of a piece with that described by Beaumarchais: "You may write any thing in Spain," says the witty *Figaro*, "provided it be "not directed against the Government, against religion, "against the Inquisition, against priests, against nobles, "their mistresses, or their valets!"

An imperial decree of the 5th of February 1810, besides materially abridging the liberty of the press, contained one of the most grievous attacks on vested rights and private property which was ever committed by a despotic government. By this decree, a director-general and six auditors were appointed for the purpose of superintending the trade of printing and bookselling, under the orders of the Minister of the Interior. It was declared that the number of printers in each department should be fixed; and those of Paris, by a dash of the pen, were suddenly reduced to sixty. This reduction was accompanied by a proviso that the sixty privileged printers should be obliged to purchase the presses and printing materials of those who were thus robbed of their rights, and that they should also pay them an indemnity, which, by a subsequent decree of the 2d of February 1811, was arbitrarily fixed at 4,000 francs to each printer. By a very summary process, the amount of these indemnities, and of the estimated value of the property in the suppressed printing offices, was accumulated into one principal sum; and each of the printers whose pri-

vileges were preserved to them was called upon to pay a sixtieth part of the whole amount.

Such was the degraded state of the press under Napoleon's Government. There was moreover a special *bureau* at the office of the minister of police, somewhat whimsically termed "*Bureau pour l'opinion publique,*" at the head of which were Messrs. Etienne, Esmenard, La Garde and Fiévée, now *liberal writers* of the first water; to these we may add M. Michaud, the ultra royalist.

The business of this bureau was to produce articles for the journals, calculated to conciliate public opinion and to produce an impression favourable to Government. The names of public offices seemed sometimes to have been selected from a principle of contrast, like the "*lux a non lucendo,*" as for instance the imperial *Bureau des Mœurs* at the prefecture of police, the business of which was to give a public sanction to prostitution, and to superintend the gaming-houses of the Palais-Royal.

ABSTRACT OF THE LAWS ON THE PRESS SINCE THE RESTORATION IN 1814.

As soon as Napoleon had abdicated, MONSIEUR, afterwards Charles X, when he arrived at Paris, proclaimed the freedom of the press. Every man that could use his pen employed himself in describing the despotism of the fallen Government; I need only cite the publications of Messrs. CHATEAUBRIAND, PICHON, MALTE-BRUN, etc. In attacking the Imperial Government, these authors very naturally held up to the detestation of the public many persons who had been long in office. But as those cameleons contrived to obtain places under the new Government, it was natural enough that they should not be well pleased to see their former conduct exposed; they therefore soon prevailed upon the restored monarch to fetter the press, and to appoint a censorship. Thus was the press as much shackled under the Bourbons as it ever was

under the Imperial Government, till 1818, when M. Decazes, the leading minister, removed the restriction.

No sooner was this done, than the liberals, that is the *ex-employés* of the imperial police, on the one hand, and the ultra royalists on the other, attacked the ministry, and even the monarch himself, who was termed by the latter a revolutionary king. This was not a very grateful return to Louis XVIII for the favours extended to the periodical press by that excellent monarch, who, immediately after his accession to the throne, restored the property of the newspapers, appropriated by Bonaparte, to the rightful owners!

The charter *octroyée* of Louis XVIII contained a provision that all Frenchmen, without exception, should have the right to publish and print their opinions, on conforming themselves to the laws which should repress the abuses of that liberty. Soon after the date of that charter, however, his Majesty was advised to publish an ordonnance without the sanction of the legislature, by which the previous laws, decrees, and regulations for the repression of abuses of the press were maintained in force, "until it should be otherwise ordained."

This ordonnance was followed, on the 21st of October 1814, by the promulgation of a law "relative to the li-"berty of the press." By this law it is declared, that every publication consisting of twenty printed sheets and upwards may be published freely without examination or preliminary censorship. The same immunity is extended to works in dead or in foreign languages; to pastoral letters, catechisms and prayer books; to judicial proceedings; to the transactions of literary and learned societies recognized by the King, and to the opinions of the members of the two chambers, whatever be the number of the sheets of which they may be composed. A discretionary power, however, is conferred on the director-general of the press at Paris, and on the prefects in the departments, to order the communication of the proofs of works consisting of less than twenty sheets fall-

ing under the description to which the immunity apparently applies. The works subject to examination are ordered to be transmitted to two or more censors, and if any two of them shall declare that the work under their consideration is a defamatory libel, that it is calculated to disturb the public tranquillity, that it is inconsistent with the terms of the Charter, or that it is injurious to public morals, the director-general of the press is authorized to interdict its publication. At the commencement of each session this law directs the appointment of a commission, consisting of three peers and three deputies chosen by the two chambers respectively, and three commissioners appointed by the King. To this commission the director-general of the press is directed to render an account of the exercise of his power of interdiction, and to submit the opinions of the censors on which he has proceeded during the previous recess. Should the commission think the motives insufficient, they are to appoint the director-general to remove the interdict. Before the publication of any work, it is declared that authors and printers should have the power of requiring its preliminary examination in the state of manuscript; and, should it be approved of, they are to be discharged from all responsibility, except towards private individuals.

By a special provision of this law, it is declared that no journal or periodical work shall be suffered to appear without the sanction of the King.

In spite of the provision of the Charter as to the liberty of the press, it was declared by this law that no one should exercise the trade of a printer or bookseller unless licensed by the Government. Unlicensed printing offices are ordered to be destroyed, and their possessors are subjected to a fine of 10,000 francs, and to six months imprisonment. Every printer is compelled, before beginning a work, to make a declaration of his intention, and, before publishing it, to make a deposit of a certain number of copies at the office of the director-general of the

press. The work may be seized and sequestrated, if the printer cannot produce certificates of this declaration and deposit; if each copy does not bear the true name and residence of the printer, or if the work has been subjected to prosecution. Contraventions are punishable by fine and imprisonment.

By royal ordonnances, dated two days after the promulgation of this law, the general superintendence of the press is vested in the Chancellor of France, instead of the Minister of the Interior, and the number of copies of each work to be furnished previous to publication is fixed at five; one for the Royal Library, one for the Chancellor of France, one for the Minister of the Home Department, one for the Director-General of the Press, and one for the censor.

In consequence of the progress which the art of lithography had made, a royal ordonnance was issued on the 8th of October 1817, declaring that the trade of printing from stone should be subjected to the same restrictions as those by which letter-press printing and engraving were already affected.

It was not until the 9th of June 1819, that a pecuniary deposit was required from the proprietor of a journal or periodical publication, as a security for the payment of the penalties it might incur, or rather perhaps as a drag on the movements of the press. By a previous enactment, the necessity of a preliminary sanction for the publication of a newspaper had been abolished. In place of that sanction, a declaration was now required of the name and residence of at least one of the proprietors or responsible editors, and of the licensed printing-office where the paper was to be published. The preliminary deposit was fixed at 10,000 fr. of *rentes*, which is equal to a capital of about 8,000*l.* sterling, for all journals published in the departments of the Seine, Seine and Oise, and Seine and Marne, if the publication was daily, and half of that sum if at wider intervals. In the departments, the deposit was diminished to 2,500 fr. of *rentes* for a daily publica-

tion, if the town in which it appeared contained 50,000 inhabitants or upwards. If the population was less considerable, the deposit was fixed at 1,500 fr. of *rentes;* and, as in the metropolitan departments, the amount was diminished one half if the journal did not appear daily. As soon as the amount of the deposit should be diminished by the condemnation of the journal to a fine to the public prosecutor, or to damages to a private party, it was declared that the complement should be made up within fifteen days afterwards, under the penalty of a suspension of the publication.

By the same law, it was directed that a copy of each journal or periodical work, bearing the signature of one of the proprietors or responsible editors, should be transmitted to the préfet or sous-préfet at the moment of the publication; but this formality, it is declared, is not to warrant the suspension of its distribution.

All political articles from the government are to be inserted in the journal on payment of the expense of insertion, and this publication is to take place on the day after the transmission of the documents to the editor. In case of condemnation, the judgment of the court is to be inserted at full length in the course of the month during which the conviction has taken place; and these, like the other provisions of the law, are guarded by the penalties of fine and imprisonment.

By a law passed on the 31st of March, 1820, during the Richelieu ministry, the free publication of journals and periodical works was suspended until the close of that session of the legislature, unless sanctioned by the royal authority. By this law the censorship was also re-established, the proprietors and editors being directed to submit the MS. of their journals to a preliminary examination.

An explanatory ordonnance was published on the following day, by which the organization of the commission of censorship was established. This commission was composed of twelve persons, named by the King, the *visa*

of one of whom was necessary to the publication of any article appearing in any periodical work. The presence of five members of the commission was required to give validity to their proceedings. This commission was under the superintendence of a council of nine magistrates, appointed by the King, on the presentation of the Keeper of the Seals, to whom the commission was appointed once a week to render an account of their proceedings.

The provisions of the law of the 31st of March, 1820, were, by a subsequent enactment of the 26th of July, 1821, maintained in force for three months after the opening of the ensuing session.

On the 17th of March, 1822 (in the ministry of Villèle), a new law was promulgated, by which a preliminary sanction was, in definitive terms, declared to be necessary to the establishment of any new journal. Instead of the MS. being sent to a committee of censorship, it was declared, by this law, that the first printed sheet should be sent to the office of the *Procureur du Roi*. The temporary suspension of a journal had previously been authorized at the pleasure of the government; but, by this law, it was declared that the *Cour Royale* might pronounce such suspension, in case it should appear, from a succession of articles, that the spirit of the journal had a tendency to disturb the public peace, to injure the respect due to the religion of the state, or to the other religions legally recognized in the kingdom, to affect the King's authority, the stability of the constitutional institutions, or the inviolability of the sales of the national domains, or their tranquil possession. After two such suspensions, the definitive suppression of the journal is to be pronounced. It was also provided that if, during the parliamentary recess, those measures should prove insufficient, the suspensive provisions of the laws of 31st March 1820 and 26th July 1822, might be revived by royal ordonnance, but that they should cease within a month after the opening of the following session, if not then sanctioned by law. The suspensive powers of the

executive were also to cease on the day on which the chambers should be dissolved.

Among other technical offences established by a law dated the 25th of March, 1822, it is declared, that infidelity, and bad faith in the reports of legislative and judicial proceedings, shall be punished by fine; and, in case of repetition, by fine and imprisonment, besides being liable, in the latter case, to be interdicted from the publication of such reports for a limited period.

It was by this law that the principle was first recognized of requiring the proprietors, or editors, of a periodical work, to publish the answer of any one named or pointed out in it, within three days after the receipt of such answer, or in the next number of the work; if later than three days, under the penalty of a fine of from fifty to five hundred francs, without prejudice to the other penalties and claims of damage, which the incriminated article may warrant: the insertion to be gratuitous, and the answer to be double the length, if necessary, of the article to which it is a reply.

Without discussing the expediency of a law which certainly has its administrative advantages, another enactment exists somewhat analogous in its nature, which cannot be too strongly recommended for English imitation. It has been remarked, and probably with some justice, that the principle of this enactment operates like a safety valve on the vindictive passions of the parties attacked, who prefer this simple remedy, which provides an antidote, circulating through the same channel with the poison, to the tedious and expensive satisfaction which a court of law might afford them.

On the accession of Charles X, the censorship on the daily press was taken off by a royal ordonnance which was published in the *Moniteur* of the 30th September 1824, maintaining however all the other provisions of the law of 1822. But in 1827, the censorship was again put on.

By a law of the 18th of July, 1828, in Martignac's ministry, it was declared, that every Frenchman, who had attained the age of majority, and was in possession of his civil rights, should be entitled to publish a journal, or periodical work, without any previous sanction, on conforming himself to the other provisions of the law. By this law, the principle of a pecuniary deposit was still maintained, but the amount was reduced from 10,000 to 6,000 francs of *rente* for the daily journals; in the metropolitan departments to the half of that sum, if they did not appear oftener than once a week; and to the quarter, if not oftener than once a month. The daily journals, published in other parts of France, were to deposit 2,000 francs of *rente*, if the town in which they appeared contained 50,000 inhabitants, and 1,200 francs if not so populous. Journals not appearing daily were to deposit the half of this sum respectively. Periodical works, exclusively devoted to science or literature; such as were devoted to subjects unconnected with politics, and were published in any other language but French; such also as contained exclusively advertisements, judicial notices, maritime intelligence, the state of the markets, and price currents, were exempted from any pecuniary deposit.

The next interference with the press bears the date of the 25th of July, 1830, when, by a too celebrated Ordonnance, its liberty was suspended, and the provisions of the law of the 21st of October 1814 were declared to be again in force.

The article of the Revolutionary Charter of 1830, on the subject of the press, is to the following effect:—"Every Frenchman is entitled to publish and print his "opinions, on conforming himself to the laws. The cen-"sorship can never be re-established."

The law which declares that the offences of the press, and political delinquencies in general, shall be tried by a jury, in the Courts of Assize, bears the date of the 8th of October, 1830.

By a law, dated the 29th of November, 1830, any at-

tack on the royal dignity, on the order of succession to the throne, on the rights which the King derives from the French nation, as expressed in the Constitutional Charter, on his constitutional authority, on the inviolability of his person, or on the rights and authority of the Legislative Chambers, is declared to be punishable by an imprisonment, not less than three months, nor more than five years, and by a fine of from 300 to 6,000 francs.

On the 10th of December, 1830, a law was passed, prohibiting the posting of placards in the streets or public places, containing political news, or treating of political subjects. By the same law it was declared, that the business of town-criers and bill-stickers should no longer be carried on but by such persons as had previously lodged a declaration to that effect, containing their names and places of residence, at the office of the Municipal Authorities. Journals sold in the public streets are only to be announced by their titles. The publication of false extracts from the journals is declared to be punishable by fine and imprisonment.

The existing law on the subject of the pecuniary deposit, the stamp, and postage of journals, is dated the 14th of December 1830. Its first provision declares, that if a periodical work appears oftener than twice a week, either on a fixed day or irregularly (1), the amount of the deposit shall be 2,400 francs of *rente*, which is nearly equal to 2,000*l.* sterling. The deposit is fixed at three fourths of that sum if the journal appear only twice a week, at a half if but once a week, and at a quarter if but once a month. Daily journals published in any department but those of the Seine and Seine and Oise are to deposit 800 fr. of *rente*, if the town in which they appear contains 50,000 inhabitants, and 500 francs in smaller towns. The half of these sums respectively are

(1) By a clerical error this word was printed "*régulièrement*" in the text of the law, but by a subsequent enactment dated the 8th of April, 1831 the error was corrected.

to be deposited for journals which are not published daily.

Into this law a provision was introduced by which newspaper property was indirectly but materially affected. It was declared that the responsible editor—*le gérant responsable*—should be the proprietor in his own name of the whole of the deposit; and if there were several editors, that the deposit should in like manner belong to them in equal portions. A period of six months was allowed to journals established before the promulgation of the law to conform themselves to this provision; and, in favour of such journals, it was provided that the excess of their previous deposits should immediately be returned to them.

According to the old system, it was only necessary that the responsible editor should be the proprietor of a single action or share in the stock of the journal with which he was connected; and as to the proportional amount of the actions with reference to the total value of the stock, no minimum was stipulated. Under these circumstances the proprietors of a journal found it an easy matter to borrow the amount of the deposit in the money market, at a moderate annual premium, in addition to the interest at the rate of four per cent. per annum allowed by the *Caisse de Consignation*. On the other hand, it was quite as easy to find a *gérant responsable* who would engage to affix his signature to the journal every morning, without being over scrupulous as to its contents, on condition of receiving an extra stipend during the period of the imprisonment to which he might thus expose himself. The new system, however, has been found in practice to be tolerably efficacious. The capitalist, who was willing to lend his money freely to a large body of proprietors, becomes naturally sensitive when he finds it standing in the name and of course placed at the disposal of the man of straw, who has been set up as the *gérant responsable*. He finds it necessary at least to satisfy himself as to the character

and circumstances of the party who is to become nominally his debtor; and the general result has undoubtedly been, that much less of recklessness and violence has been observable in the periodical press since this new law has come into operation.

At this period also a considerable improvement was introduced into the fiscal regulations affecting the newspaper press. If the sheet on which a journal is printed exceeds the dimensions of thirty square décimètres, the stamp duty amounts to six centimes, which is equal to about six-tenths of a penny; and if it do not exceed fifty square décimètres, the stamp duty is only three centimes. If the size be more than fifteen and less than thirty square decimètres, an extra centime is to be paid for each five décimètres above the fifteen, without paying any thing for fractions less than five square décimètres. No duty is chargeable for the supplementary sheets which occasionally accompany the larger journals printed on sheets of thirty square décimètres and upwards.

Journals sent by post pay two centimes of postage if destined for any place situated in the same department in which they are published. The postage is four centimes if sent to the frontiers or to any place in France not within the department where the paper originally appears.

Papers printed in foreign languages, or coming from foreign countries, pay the maximum of duty and postage established for native journals.

The preliminary proceedings against libels in newspapers are: that the *procureur du roi*, when he sees an objectionable article in a journal, orders a seizure of the whole impression, either at the Post Office, at the printing office, or even at the coffee-houses, in short, wherever it can be met with. Within three days, the *procureur du roi* must either institute proceedings, or restore the papers thus seized, but without being required to grant an indemnity to the proprietors for losses sustained.

The law respecting books is nearly the same as that

regarding newspapers. A printer is obliged to send a copy of a work to the Minister of the Interior before it is exposed for sale. If the *procureur du roi* consider the book libellous, he may seize the whole edition, and can retain it till after the trial is over, when he must restore it if the work escape conviction. It is not necessary to have a permission from Government to publish a work, and the *procureur du roi* may prosecute for libel, even after it is in circulation.

It is evident, from all the laws and regulations that since the Revolution of 1789, till the present period, all the Governments, of every kind and form, republican, imperial, and monarchical, have been all alike inimical to the liberty of the press.

List of Journals now published (1832).

We shall commence with the daily morning and evening journals published in Paris.

The *Moniteur*, which promulgates the laws, etc., reports *verbatim* the speeches of the Members of both Chambers, all official bulletins, and is the ostensible organ of Government. Its regular sale is about 3,000 per diem. The *Moniteur* was first established as an official paper ever since 1789. The price is 28 fr. per quarter. The price of the other Parisian daily papers is 20 fr. per quarter. The duty on each newspaper is 5 cent.

The *Journal des Débats*. This journal was first established during the Government of the Directory. The principles leaned towards the Bourbons. During the Imperial Government, when it took the title of *le Journal de l'Empire*, its daily circulation was about 20,000. The reason of this great sale was owing to the theatrical criticisms of a certain Abbé Geoffroy, who was tutor in the family of the celebrated Fréron, the literary antagonist of Voltaire. Young Fréron did not, however, inherit the principles of his father nor of his tutor, as he was a violent revolutionist. With the Abbé Geoffroy's

criticisms he always mixed up politics; these were anti-republican, which, of course, gave great pleasure to the Emperor. In this journal there were many eminent literary men employed as editors and contributors, viz. —Messrs. Etienne, Fiévée, Dussault, Hoffman, and Malte-Brun. On the Restoration in 1814, the *Journal de l'Empire* resumed its old title of the *Débats;* and when Napoleon returned from Elba, its title of *Empire* succeeded that of *Débats;* and, at the second restoration, it was changed again to that of *Débats*. This paper till the Revolution of 1830 always wrote in favour of the Bourbons, but, when M. de Chateaubriand, who occasionally lent his powerful pen to this journal, quitted M. de Villèle's ministry, the *Débats* became violently anti-ministerial. During the ministry of M. de Martignac, it supported that administration. When the Polignac ministry was formed, the *Débats* became again outrageously anti-ministerial. Since the Revolution of 1830, it has been a decided ministerial journal; in consequence it lost many of its subscribers. Its present daily circulation is said to be about 12,000. The editors and contributors to that paper are Messrs. Bertin de Vaux, chief editor, St. Marc, Girardin, Sylvestre de Sacy fils, Salvandy, Villemain. Literature: Janin, Castil-Blaze, Chasles, Marie Boutard, de l'Eclose. During a long period, M. de Chateaubriand contributed articles to that paper, but since the Revolution of 1830, that noble and enlightened author ceased all connection with it.

The *Constitutionnel* was first established in 1814. Its circulation from 1817 to 1829 was supposed to be about 18,000, even now it is stated to be about 16 to 17,000. From its first establishment till the Revolution of 1830, it was always a violent opposer of every ministry. Since then it is occasionally ministerial and occasionally anti-ministerial. In consequence of this vacillation, it has lost many of its subscribers, who have substituted the *National* and the *Courrier Français* for the *Constitutionnel*. Its present editors and contributors are: Messrs. Dar-

maing, chief editor, Etienne, Jay, Evariste Dumoulin, Bert aîné, Cauchois Lemaire, Félix Bodin, Buchon, Fain le fils, Drouineau, and Briffault.

The *National* commenced with the Polignac ministry. The persons who advanced the money for its establishment were, according to current report, Prince Talleyrand and M. Laffitte, who appointed Messrs. Thiers and Mignet for their chief editors. These two gentlemen had acquired some celebrity as the authors of historical works on the subject of the Revolution. The chief aim of all the parties connected with this paper was to drive Charles X. from his throne, and in which they succeeded. As a reward for their services, the above-named four persons were promoted to high and lucrative situations under the new Government. The present daily circulation of the *National*, which has considerably increased since the Revolution, is about 4,000. The principles of the paper, which is conducted with great ability, are decidedly republican, though occasionally inclined to the glorious "*souvenirs de l'Empire.*" The editors are M. Carrel, chief editor, Peysse, Rollin, Schubart, Comte, de Chambolle. Literature: Rolle, Fétis.

La France Nouvelle was established in 1830. It has been the organ of all the ministries since that period. Its daily circulation is about 15 to 1,700. The editors are Léon Pillet, Lingay, Vitet, Dittmer; it is the property of Jacques Lefèvre, Odier, and Augustin Périer.

La Tribune du Mouvement was established in 1830, and has ever since been opposed to the present Government. It is conducted on republican principles. Since its establishment it has had to sustain about 50 Government prosecutions for libel. Its circulation is about 1,600. The editors are Marrast, Sarrut, Bascans, Raspail, Delaunay, Ledieu.

The *Courrier Français* was first established in 1815, and is certainly the most consistent paper, as it has opposed every ministry from its first number till the present hour. It is very ably conducted on republican principles, and

by no means a Bonapartean advocate; so far from it, a very able article, written by M. Avenel, one of its editors, against the Imperial Government, in that paper 12 months about ago, drove the partisans of Napoleon almost to madness. Its daily circulation is about 9,000. The present editors and contributors to this paper are: Châtelain, chief editor, Lapelouze, Guyet, Artaud, Avenel, Cormenin, Isambert, d'Herbelot, and formerly the Abbé de Pradt and General Lamarque.

The *Quotidienne* was first established in the early period of the Government of the Directory, but was suppressed on the 18th Fructidor, and was not revived till the Restoration in 1814. Although a royalist paper, and conducted with considerable ability, it nevertheless attacked every ministry of the Bourbon Government, excepting that of M. de Polignac. Its daily circulation is about 8,000. The present editors and contributors are: Messrs. de Brian, E. Morice, Nettement, Merle, de Kergorlay, the celebrated Michaud, Poujoulat, d'Audiffret, etc.

Le Temps was established during M. de Martignac's administration. It was then anti-ministerial, and has, since the Revolution, alternately defended and attacked the several administrations. Till the Revolution of 1830, M. Baude was one of its editors, but, after that period, he left it on being appointed Conseiller d'Etat, and Prefect of Police at Paris: the latter post he occupied only about four months. *Le Temps* is conducted with talent, and generally advocates constitutional royalist principles. The daily circulation is about 4,000. The present editors are: Loëve Weimar, Fiévée, Capefigue, Rodet, Ymbert; and for literature, Nodier, Fétis, Ch. Lenormand, Eyriès, Geoffroy-St.-Hilaire, Reynaud, Avenel, Michel Raymond, Paulin Paris, Mérimée, Alf. de Musset, Eusèbe de Salle.

The *Courrier de l'Europe* has only been established since the Revolution of 1830, and is devoted to the fallen dynasty; it is conducted with great ability; its daily cir-

culation is about 2,000. The editors are, Laroze, Laurentie, the celebrated Berryer—literature, de Ginestet, etc.

The *Journal du Commerce*.—This paper was first established during the Consular Government. When journalists, after the Restoration, were allowed to express an opinion of their own, the *Journal du Commerce* advocated constitutional principles. Its daily circulation is about 2,000. The editors are Guillemot, Desloges, Michel, Boniface, Justin, Gensoul.

The *Corsaire*, a small-sized paper, remarkable for *jeux d'esprit*, etc.; its daily sale is about 2,000. It was first established in 1824, and never ceased to direct its *broadsides* against all the ministries before and since the Revolution of 1830. The editors are, Briffault, Brucker, Janin, and Félix Desportes, jun.

The *Figaro* first appeared about the same time as the *Corsaire*, and the size, spirit, and style are the same, though of late the *Figaro* has been too subservient to the present ministers. Its daily circulation is about 2,000; and the editors are Nestor Roqueplan and Gozlan. Two of its former editors, Messrs. Bohain and Fontan, have been, since the Revolution of 1830, appointed Prefects.

Le Revenant was established in August, 1831, and is a decided Carlist journal; it is very witty, and free from all vulgarity. Its circulation is about 1,500; the size is the same as the two preceding journals. The editor is the Viscount de Nugent.

Le Brid'Oison was established in January, 1832, and is conducted in the same spirit as the preceding. The present circulation is about 500.

La Gazette des Tribunaux.—This journal first appeared in 1823. It contains the most remarkable of the proceedings of the Courts of Law in all France. Its daily circulation is about 3,000. The conductors are Messrs. Isambert, a judge, and Darmaing, a barrister.

The *Petites Affiches*.—This paper is appropriated to advertisements only. Its daily circulation is about 4,000.

Until within the last four years, the daily journals did not, as they do now, contain advertisements, therefore the sale of the *Petites Affiches* has decreased very considerably. The daily sale formerly was 10,000. Advertisements pay no duty to government.

The *Courrier des Théâtres*, a small journal, contains only theatrical criticisms. Its circulation is about 1,500.

Galignani's Messenger, an English journal, published daily, except Sundays. It circulates all over the Continent, so that its sale is very considerable, being above 4,000 daily. The *Messenger* publishes also an afternoon edition, which contains the substance of the English and other journals received in the course of the morning. Messrs. Galignani also publish, every Sunday, a literary journal and review, entitled "The *London and Paris Observer*," which gives extracts from the newest English and foreign publications.

Daily Evening Papers.

The *Gazette de France*.—This paper was originally called the *Étoile*, and was established under the auspices of M. de Serres, when he was Minister of Justice, in 1821, who placed a near relation of his over it as editor. But when M. de Villèle came into office, in 1822, the paper became the sole property of M. de Genoude. In the year 1826, the *Gazette de France*, a daily morning paper, was joined to the *Étoile*, and, as the title of the former was of an ancient date, that title was alone retained. The daily sale of the *Gazette*, which, previous to the Revolution of 1830, was about 8,000, has, since that period, risen to 15,000. This paper is conducted with great ability, and is decidedly devoted to the late dynasty. The editors are, Messrs. de Genoude, de Fleury, Beauregard, Lourdoueix, Colnet, and Lubis. Counts Castelbajac and de Peyronnet, the ex-minister, occasionally write articles in the *Gazette*.

The *Messager des Chambres* was first established under the auspices of M. de Martignac's ministry. After the Revolution it became a ministerial paper till very lately. It is now in opposition, and is the sole property of M. Aguado, the celebrated Spanish banker. Its present circulation is about 2,000; and its editors are, Grille, St.-Ange, Regnier d'Estourbel, and Septavaux.

Le Nouvelliste, a new ministerial journal. The sale is about 1,000. The present editors are those who formerly conducted the *Messager des Chambres*, viz. Malitourne, Babon, and Ch. Mévil.

The *Constitutionnel de* 1830, a ministerial journal, lately established. Its daily circulation is about 1,000. The editors are, Rumigny, Hompère de Champagny, Monglave, Moreau-Rozier, and Lafontaine.

Bulletin des Lois. This is the official journal which contains all the laws and ordonnances. It is published every ten days.

La Revue de Paris, a small-sized magazine, was first established in 1830. Some of the first literary characters in France contribute to this most excellent work. Its sale is about 1,500. It certainly merits a higher circulation. It is published every five days.

La Mode.—Although the title conveys the idea only of a lady's journal, it nevertheless contains, besides the fashions, some excellent political articles. This journal appears every five days, and circulates about 1,000. The editor is M. Dufougeray.

La Caricature.—This journal first appeared in 1831, and each number contains two political caricatures, all against government, but chiefly against the King and the Royal Family. It is published once a week, and has been very often prosecuted for libels.

Les Cancans, a new Carlist journal, published every five days. Its circulation is small.

Le Voleur, published every five days, corresponds to its title, as it contains extracts from all other journals and new works.

Le Cabinet de Lecture, published every three days, which also contains extracts from newspapers and new books.

PERIODICAL WORKS OF SCIENCE, ARTS, AND LITERATURE, ETC., PUBLISHED IN PARIS.

Abeille Musicale.	Monthly.
Agriculteur Manufacturier (l').	Ditto.
Ami de la Jeunesse.	Ditto.
Ami de la Religion.	Thrice a week.
Annales de Chimie et Physique.	Monthly.
Annales de l'Agriculture.	Ditto.
Annales de Médecine physiologique.	Ditto.
Annales de la Société d'Horticulture.	Ditto.
Annales de Mathématiques.	Ditto.
Annales des Ponts-et-Chaussées.	Ditto.
Annales des Sciences naturelles.	Ditto.
Annales des Mines.	Ditto.
Annales d'Hygiène maternelle.	Ditto.
Annales d'Hygiène publique.	Ditto.
Annales Maritimes et Coloniales.	Ditto.
Annales Universelles de la Législation et de la Jurisprudence commerciale.	Ditto.
Archives du Christianisme.	Ditto.
Archives Générales de Médecine.	Ditto.
Archives Philantropiques.	Ditto.
Artiste (l').	Weekly.
Bibliographie de la France, Journal de la Librairie.	Ditto.
Bibliothèque physico-économique.	Monthly.
Bulletin de la Société Biblique.	Ditto.
Bulletin de la Société de Géographie.	Ditto.
Bulletin de la Société d'Encouragement.	Ditto.
Bulletin de la Société Statistique.	Ditto.
Bulletin des Arrêts de la Cour de Cassation.	Ditto.
Bulletin mensuel de la Société d'Instruction élémentaire.	Twice a month.
Bulletin Universel des Sciences et de l'Industrie.	Every five days.
Conservatoire de l'Industrie.	Monthly.
Contrôleur de l'Enregistrement (le).	Twice a week.
Cosmopolite (le).	Ditto.
Courrier des Communes.	Monthly.
Écho des Gardes Nationales.	Ditto.
Écho des Halles et Marchés.	Twice a week.

Feuille Française (la).	Every other day.
Follet (le).	Ditto.
France Littéraire (la).	Every fortnight.
Galerie Musicale.	Every fifth day.
Garde National (le).	Twice a week.
Gastronome (le).	Ditto.
Gazette des Écoles.	Ditto.
Guide (le) des Amateurs de Piano.	Monthly.
Indicateur (l') de la Fortune.	Thrice a week.
Indicateur Parisien.	Twice a week.
Industriel (l').	Monthly.
Journal Asiatique.	Ditto.
Journal complémentaire du Dictionnaire des Sciences médicales.	Ditto.
Journal de Chant et de Musique d'église.	Weekly.
Journal de Chimie médicale.	Monthly.
Journal de l'Académie d'Horticulture.	Ditto.
Journal de la Jurisprudence et du Notariat.	Ditto.
Journal de la Société Phrénologique.	Ditto.
Journal de l'Enregistrement et des Domaines.	Thrice a week.
Journal de l'Instruction élémentaire.	Monthly.
Journal de Pharmacie.	Ditto.
Journal de Physiologie.	
Journal des Artistes et Amateurs.	Weekly.
Journal des Avoués.	Monthly.
Journal des Bâtimens.	Weekly,
Journal des Commissions sanitaires dans le département de la Seine.	Weekly.
Journal des Connaissances usuelles et pratiques.	Monthly.
Journal des Connaissances utiles.	Ditto.
Journal des Contributions indirectes et des Domaines.	Ditto.
Journal des Dames et des Modes.	Every fifth day.
Journal des Huissiers.	Monthly.
Journal des Missions évangéliques.	Ditto.
Journal des Notaires et Avocats.	Ditto.
Journal des Paroisses et du Clergé.	Ditto.
Journal des Presbytères et des Fabriques.	Ditto.
Journal des Prisons, Hospices, etc.	Monthly.
Journal des Sciences militaires.	Ditto.
Journal des Tailleurs.	Twice a week.
Journal des Travaux de l'Académie de l'Industrie.	
Journal des Villes et des Campagnes.	Every other day.
Journal du Génie civil.	Monthly.
Journal du Palais.	Ditto.
Journal Général de la Littérature.	Ditto.
Journal Grammatical Français.	Ditto.
Journal Militaire (officiel).	Ditto.
Journal Officiel de l'Instruction publique.	Twice a week.
Journal Officiel des Gardes Nationales.	

Journal Pratique de Médecine vétérinaire.	Monthly.
Journal Spécial des Justices de Paix.	Ditto.
Journal Universel hebdomadaire de Médecine et de Chirurgie.	Weekly.
Juge de paix (le).	Monthly.
Jurisprudence Générale du Royaume.	Ditto.
Jurisprudence Criminelle du Royaume.	Ditto.
L'Européen.	Weekly.
L'Extra-Muros.	Every other day.
L'Indépendant (ci-devant la Semaine).	Twice a week.
Lycée (le).	Weekly.
Mémorial Encyclopédique.	Monthly.
Mercure du XIX^e. Siècle.	Weekly.
Némésis (la).	Ditto.
Nouveau Journal Asiatique.	
Nouveau Journal d'Éducation.	Monthly.
Nouvelles Annales des Voyages.	Ditto.
Organisateur (l').	
Père de Famille (le).	Ditto.
Petit Courrier de la Halle aux Blés.	Twice a week.
Petit Courrier des Dames.	Five times a week.
Propagateur des Arts et Métiers.	Monthly.
Protestant (le).	Every tenth day.
Recueil de Jurisprudence des Huissiers.	Monthly.
Recueil des Arrêts du Conseil.	Ditto.
Recueil Général des Lois et Arrêts en matière civile.	Ditto.
Recueil Industriel et des Beaux-Arts.	Ditto.
Recueil Mensuel de la Gazette Médicale de Santé.	Ditto.
Recueil Vétérinaire.	Ditto.
Répertoire du Droit commercial.	Ditto.
Répertoire Médical.	Ditto.
Revue Britannique.	Ditto.
Revue des Deux-Mondes.	Ditto.
Revue Encyclopédique.	Ditto.
Revue Médicale Française.	Ditto.
Revue Musicale.	Ditto.
Revue Protestante.	Ditto.
Revue de Paris.	Weekly.
Robertson's Magazine.	Twice a month.
Ruban Tricolore (le).	Twice a week.
Semeur (le).	Weekly.
Sentinelle du Peuple (la).	Ditto.
Spectateur Militaire.	Monthly.
The London and Paris Observer.	Weekly.
Thémis.	Monthly.
Transactions Médicales.	
Tribune Catholique, Gazette du Clergé.	Twice a week.
Troubadour des Salons (le).	Monthly.
Utile (l') et l'Agréable.	Twice a month.

PROVINCIAL JOURNALS.

Every town of importance in France (that is, *chef-lieu* of a department) has a journal for the publication of official acts emanating from the local authorities, and for advertising public sales of property. Of the political journals in the provinces, a list distinguishing the principles espoused by them is subjoined. The influence of those to which no political colour is ascribed is so limited, or their principles are so wavering, as not to entitle them to much consideration.

Towns where they are published.	Titles of newspapers.	Publication.
AGEN.	—*Journal de Lot-et-Garonne.*	Thrice a week.
	Mémorial Agenais.	Ditto.
AJACCIO.	— *Journal du département de la Corse.*	Once a week.
	Journal Libre de la Corse.	Ditto.
ALENÇON.	— *Journal d'Alençon.*	Ditto.
AMIENS.	— *L'Abeille Picarde.*	Ditto.
	Gazette de Picardie. (Carliste).	
	Le Glaneur.	Ditto.
	Sentinelle Picarde. (Libéral).	Twice a week.
ANGERS.	— *Gazette d'Anjou.* (Carliste).	Daily except Sunday.
	Journal de Maine-et-Loire. (Libéral).	Daily except Tuesday.
ANGOULÊME.	— *Journal de la Charente.*	Once a week.
ARRAS.	— *Le Courrier du Pas-de-Calais.*	Every other day.
	Propagateur du Pas-de-Calais. (Libéral).	Ditto
AUBUSSON.	— *Album de la Creuse.* (Libéral).	Once a week.
AUCH.	— *Journal du Gers.*	
AVIGNON.	— *Écho de Vaucluse.*	Twice a week.
BAR-LE-DUC.	— *Écho de l'Est.* (Libéral).	Ditto.
	Journal de la Meuse (Libéral).	Ditto.
BAYONNE.	— *Sentinelle de Bayonne.* (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
BEAUVAIS.	— *Journal de l'Oise.*	Twice a week.
	Patriote de l'Oise. (Libéral.)	Ditto.
BESANÇON.	— *Gazette de Franche-Comté.* (Carliste).	Ditto.
	L'Impartial. (Libéral).	Ditto
	Patriote Franc-Comtois. (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
BÉTHUNE.	— *La Revue Artésienne.*	Once a week.
BLOIS.	— *Affiches, Annonces, etc.*	
BORDEAUX.	— *Journal de la Guienne.*	Daily.
	L'Indicateur. (Libéral).	Ditto.
	Mémorial Bordelais. (Juste-milieu).	Ditto.
	Le Spectateur. (Libéral).	Twice a week.

BOULOGNE-SUR-MER. — *Annotateur.*	Once a week.
La Boulonnaise.	Ditto.
Le Guetteur.	Twice a week.
BOURG. — *Le Courrier de l'Ain.* (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
Journal de l'Ain.	Ditto.
BOURGES. — *Gazette du Berri.* (Carliste).	Twice a week.
Journal du Cher (Libéral).	Ditto.
Revue du Cher. (Libéral).	Ditto.
BREST. — *Le Finistère.* (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
BRIVE. — *Feuille d'Affiches, Annonces.*	Once a week.
CAEN. — *L'Ami de la Vérité.*	Twice a week.
Pilote du Calvados. (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
CALAIS. — *Journal de Calais.*	Once a week.
L'Indicateur de Calais.	Ditto.
CAMBRAI. — *Feuille de Cambrai.*	Twice a week.
Gazette de Cambrai.	
CHALONS-SUR-MARNE. — *Journal de la Marne.*	
CHALONS-SUR-SAÔNE. — *Gazette de Bourgogne.*	Ditto.
Le Patriote de Saône-et-Loire. (Libéral).	
CHARTRES. — *Le Glaneur.*	Once a week.
Le Nouveau Journal d'Eure-et-Loir.	Twice a week.
CHAUMONT. — *Le Citoyen de la Haute-Marne.* (Libéral).	Ditto.
Journal de la Haute-Marne.	Ditto.
CLERMONT-FERRAND. — *Gazette d'Auvergne.* (Carliste).	Thrice a week.
L'Ami de la Charte. (Juste-milieu.)	Twice a week.
Patriote du Puy-de-Dôme.	Ditto.
DIEPPE. — *Feuille ou Journal de Dieppe.*	•
DIJON. — *Journal Politique de la Côte-d'Or.*	Thrice a week.
Le Spectateur.	Every other day.
Patriote de la Côte-d'Or. (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
DOUAI. — *Feuille de Douai.*	Ditto.
L'Indicateur du Nord.	Ditto.
Mémorial de la Scarpe. (Libéral).	
DUNKIRK. — *Feuille d'Annonces.*	
ÉPINAL. — *Sentinelle des Vosges* (Libéral).	Twice a week.
La Semaine Vosgienne.	
FALAISE. — *Journal de Falaise.*	Once a week.
FÉCAMP. — *Feuille de Fécamp.*	
FONTENAY-LE-COMTE. — *Feuille d'Annonces.*	Ditto.
GRENOBLE. — *Journal de Grenoble.*	Thrice a week.
Le Dauphinois. (Libéral).	Ditto.
GUÉRET. — *Journal de la Creuse.*	
HAVRE. — *Écho du Publicateur.*	Ditto.
Journal du Hâvre. (Libéral).	Daily except Sunday.
LAON. — *Journal de l'Aisne.*	Thrice a week.
L'Observateur de l'Aisne.	Twice a week.
LILLE. — *La Boussole.*	Daily.

Lille. —	*L'Écho du Nord.* (Libéral).	Daily.
	Le Nord, Gazette Constitutionnelle de Lille. (Carliste).	Ditto.
Limoges. —	*Annales de la Haute-Vienne.*	
	L'Ami des Lois.	
	Le Nouveau Contribuable. (Libéral).	Twice a week.
Lisieux. —	*Le Lexovien.*	Once a week.
	Le Patriote, Journal du Calvados et de l'Eure.	Ditto.
Lons-le-Saulnier. —	*Sentinelle du Jura.* (Libéral).	Twice a week.
Lyons. —	*Courrier de Lyon* (Carliste).	Daily.
	L'Écho de la Fabrique. (Libéral).	Once a week
	Le Furet de Lyon. (Libéral).	Twice a week.
	Gazette du Lyonnais. (Carliste).	Daily except Monday.
	La Glaneuse.	Twice a week.
	Journal du Commerce. (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
	Le Précurseur. (Libéral).	Daily except Wednesday.
Macon. —	*Journal de Saône-et-Loire.* (Libéral).	Twice a week.
Mans (Le). —	*Le Courrier de la Sarthe.* (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
	L'Écho de la Sarthe. (Libéral).	Ditto.
	Gazette du Maine. (Libéral).	Ditto.
Marseille. —	*Feuille du Commerce.*	Daily except Sunday.
	Le Garde National. (Juste-milieu).	Ditto.
	Gazette du Midi. (Carliste).	Thrice a week.
	Messager de Marseille. (Libéral).	Twice a week.
	Le Sémaphore de Marseille. (Libéral).	Daily.
	Revue de la Semaine.	Once a week.
Melun. —	*L'Indicateur Général de Seine-et-Marne.*	Ditto.
Mende. —	*Journal du département de la Lozère.*	
Metz. —	*Courrier de la Moselle.* (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
	La Gazette de Metz. (Carliste).	Every other day.
	L'Indépendant de la Moselle. (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
Montauban. —	*Journal d'Affiches, d'Annonces et Avis Divers.*	Once a week.
Mont-de-Marsan. —	*Journal des Landes.*	
Montpellier. —	*Courrier du Midi, Journal de l'Hérault.*	Thrice a week.
	Les Mélanges Occitaniques.	
Mézières. —	*Journal du département des Ardennes.*	Once a week.
Moulins. —	*Gazette Constitutionnelle.* (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
	Journal de l'Allier. (Juste-milieu).	
	Journal du Bourbonnais. (Carliste).	Ditto.
Nancy. —	*Le Courrier Lorrain.*	Every other day.
	Patriote de la Meurthe. (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
	Journal de la Meurthe.	Every other day.
Nantes. —	*L'Ami de la Charte.* (Libéral).	Five times a week.
	L'Ami de l'Ordre. (Carliste).	Thrice a week.
	Le Breton. (Libéral).	Five times a week.

NEUFCHATEL. — *L'Écho de la Vallée de Bray.*	Every fifth day.
NEVERS. — *Gazette du Nivernais.*	Ditto.
Sentinelle de la Nièvre. (Libéral).	Twice a week.
NIORT.—*Nouvelle Sentinelle des Deux-Sèvres.* (Libéral).	Once a week.
Le Véridique.	Ditto.
NISMES. — *Courrier du Gard.* (Libéral).	Twice a week.
Journal du Gard. (Juste-milieu).	Ditto.
ORLÉANS. — *Le Garde National du Loiret.* (Libéral).	Ditto.
Journal du Loiret.	Ditto.
L'Orléanais. (Carliste).	Ditto.
PAU. — *Mémorial des Pyrénées.* (Libéral).	
PÉRIGUEUX. — *L'Écho de Vésone.* (Libéral).	Twice a week.
PERPIGNAN. — *Journal des Pyrénées-Orientales.*	Once a week.
POITIERS. — *L'Écho du Peuple, Journal de l'Ouest.* (Libéral).	Twice a week.
Gazette de l'Ouest. (Carliste).	Ditto.
PRIVAS. — *Journal du département de l'Ardèche.*	Twice a week.
PUY (LE). — *Journal de la Haute-Loire.*	Ditto.
RENNES. — *L'Auxiliaire Breton.* (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
Gazette de Bretagne. (Carliste).	Ditto.
RIOM. — *Courrier de la Limagne.* (Libéral).	Once a week.
LA ROCHELLE. *Journal de la Charente-Inférieure.*	
RODEZ. — *Gazette du Rouergue.* (Carliste).	Twice a week.
Journal de l'Aveyron.	Ditto.
ROUEN. — *Écho de Rouen et de la Seine-Inférieure.*	Daily.
Gazette de Normandie. (Carliste).	Ditto.
Journal de Rouen. (Libéral).	Ditto.
SAINT-ÉTIENNE. — *Mercure Ségusien.* (Libéral).	Twice a week.
SAINT-OMER. — *Mémorial Artésien.*	
SAINT-QUENTIN. — *Le Guetteur.*	Ditto.
STRASBURG. — *L'Alsace Constitutionnelle.* (Libéral.)	
L'Alsacien. (Libéral)	Thrice a week.
Courrier du Bas-Rhin. (Libéral).	Daily, except Monday.
TOULON. — *L'Aviso de la Méditerranée.*	Twice a week.
TOULOUSE. — *France Méridionale* (Libéral).	Every other day.
Gazette du Languedoc. — *Mémorial de Toulouse.* (Carliste).	Ditto.
Journal Politique et Littéraire de Toulouse et de la Haute-Garonne.	Ditto.
Le Patriote de Juillet. (Libéral).	Ditto.
TOURS. — *Journal d'Indre-et-Loire.*	Thrice a week.
TROYES.—*Journal de l'Aube, Écho de la Champagne.*	Every other day.
VALENCE. — *Journal de la Drôme.*	Twice a week.
VALENCIENNES. — *Le Courrier du Nord.* (Libéral).	Thrice a week.
VERSAILLES. — *Journal de Seine-et-Oise.*	Ditto
Le Vigilant. (Libéral).	Every fourth day.
ALGIERS. — *Moniteur Algérien.* (Juste-milieu).	Ditto.

THE NATIONAL GUARD.

The political importance now inseparably attached to the institution of the National Guard entitles it to a detailed examination in any work which professes to give a view of the general statistics of the kingdom.

At the commencement of the Revolution in 1789, the city of Paris, in which this body originated, was divided into sixty districts, for each of which the inhabitants chose electors, who nominated twenty deputies, to whom they gave regular instructions for their government in maintaining the peace of the metropolis. Aware that a dangerous band of ruffians had established themselves in the capital, for the purposes of plunder and of exciting disturbances, the electors took into their serious consideration the best means of maintaining the public safety, without resorting to violence. For this purpose, they requested the National Assembly to sanction the plan formed by the city of Paris, of assembling the inhabitants of the several districts to vote a sum of money for the establishment of a Civic Guard.

This proposition was not at first approved of by the National Assembly; but the danger becoming more and more imminent, several of the members, on the 10th of July, 1789, presented a formal proposition, the object of which was to induce the Assembly to present an Address to the King, entreating his Majesty to order the withdrawal of the troops of the line from the environs of Paris, and, at the same time, that a *Garde Bourgeoise* might be formed, similar to those corps of citizens which had been established in some of the provinces, which, it was asserted, was sufficient to suppress all disorder. This proposition, however, although sanctioned by the Assembly, was received by the King with marked disapprobation. On the 13th of July, 1789, the reign of anarchy began in Paris, by the universal cry of "*aux armes*," accompa-

cied, in every parish, by the doleful sound of the *tocsin*. The alarmed citizens presented themselves at the *Hôtel-de-Ville*, where the electors were assembled, and demanded that arms should be distributed to them. The electors assured the people, that they had themselves voted the establishment of a *Garde Bourgeoise*, and advised them to return peaceably to their homes, to afford time for their organisation. On the following day, however, the citizens again assembled in front of the Town-hall, and reiterated their demand for arms. The *Prévôt des Marchands*, an office in some degree analogous to that of the Lord Mayor of London, but whose appointment was for life, assured the citizens that in the course of the day 12,000 muskets should be delivered to them, and that, within two or three days he would distribute an additional supply of 30,000.

The permanent committee of the electors applied themselves to the organisation of this metropolitan militia, which was to be composed of 48,000 citizens. The first enrolment in the sixty districts was to consist of 200 men for the first day, and so on successively for the three following days, until the whole contingent was completed. The sixty districts were classed into sixteen quarters, and each quarter was to furnish a legion, which was to bear the name of the quarter to which it belonged. Twelve of the sixteen legions were to be composed of four battalions, and the remaining four of three only; each battalion to consist of four companies, and each company of 200 men. A general staff to be formed for the whole corps, and a particular staff for each separate legion. The general staff was to be composed of a general-commandant, a general-commandant *en second*, a major-general, and an aide-major-general. The particular staff of each legion was to consist of a commandant-in-chief, a commandant *en second*, a major, four aide-majors, and an adjutant. Each company was to be commanded by a captain *en premier* and a captain *en second*, two lieutenants, and two sub-lieutenants; and was to be

composed of one sergeant-major, seven sergeants, thirty-two corporals, 158 privates, and two drummers. Having established the organization of the militia of Paris, the committee proceeded to the nomination of the officers. The commandant-general, the commandant-general *en second*, and the major-general were nominated by the committee itself; the aide-major-general and the particular staff of each legion were nominated, also by the committee, on the recommendation of the heads of the districts. As to the officers of the battalions, they were named by each district, or by commissioners deputed for that purpose by each of the districts and quarters. It was enacted, that the distinguishing cockade of the militia of Paris should be blue and red; and that every one who should wear this emblem, without being registered, should be arrested, and delivered over to the permanent committee, who had the necessary power of punishment. The head quarters of this militia was to be permanently fixed at the *Hôtel-de-Ville*. The officers composing the general staff were to have their sittings in the permanent committee of the electors. For the accommodation of the new civic forces, sixteen principal *corps-de-garde* were to be established, one for each legion, and sixty others, one for each district. The *patrouilles* were to make their rounds wherever it was thought necessary, and their strength was to be regulated by the officers. All arms received from the *corps-de-garde* were to be deposited there by each member of the militia on his going off duty, for which arms the officers were to be responsible. Every citizen composing the militia was be bound to do duty once every four days. These regulations were immediately published and distributed in each district to be put into execution, and were received with general enthusiasm.

After making these arrangements, the committee found that they were without either arms or ammunition. The period demanded by the *Prévôt des Marchands* for distributing the 12,000 muskets had expired, and not a sin-

gle firelock had been issued. The committee, indignant at such conduct, ordered the districts to manufacture pikes for the use of the new militia; and such was the zeal with which this order was executed, that within forty-eight hours there were 50,000 pikes ready for distribution. The *Marquis de la Salle*, a lieutenant-colonel in the regular army, and one of the members of the permanent committee, proposed an immediate nomination of the principal officers. He said, he was far from considering himself either capable or worthy to fill the first post, but freely placed his life and fortune at their disposal. This communication was received by the committee with great applause; the rank of general-commandant was offered to the Duke d'Aumont, and the second command to the *Marquis de la Salle*, both of whom immediately entered on their functions. The other principal officers were then nominated, and measures were taken to prevent disorder. As soon as this armed body was put in motion the brigands were disarmed, and the metropolis was restored for a short time to a state of comparative tranquillity.

From the first organisation of the *Garde Bourgeoise* in 1789, we shall now pass at once to the second epoch, when the command was voted to the Marquis de Lafayette.

By him the *Garde Bourgeoise* was soon placed on a better system of discipline; and as it was probable that all the *communes* in France would follow the example of the capital, by confiding their safety to a corps of armed citizens, he proposed that Paris should set the example by assuming the title of National Guard, the name best suited to citizen-troops who thus armed themselves for the defence of public liberty and of the national constitution.

The National Guard was now divided into districts, and a *Commandant-Général* was appointed. On the 26th July 1789, the *Comité Provisoire* being desirous of regulating the most important points, decreed:—

1. That the service of the National Guard of Paris should be considered as a personal obligation.

2. That every burgess domiciliated in Paris, of whatever condition or quality, should be personally obliged to do duty.

3. That substitutes should be procured at the expense of such absentees as had not themselves provided a proper person to do their duty.

Soon after this new organisation, the blue and red cockade, which had been the symbol of insurrection, had the white colour added to it, and since that period it has been called "*la cocarde tricolore.*"

The National Guard of Paris, besides a general staff, was at first composed of 7 divisions, 6 of which were infantry, and one cavalry, to which were added 140 pieces of artillery. Each division consisted of 10 battalions, one company of grenadiers, and a company of *chasseurs*, which last were paid. Each battalion bore the name of a district or section of the city, and was composed of five companies of fusiliers of about 100 men each. One of these companies received pay, and was called the *centre company*. Another company, which was also paid, was destined to attend the markets in case of necessity. Each battalion had a stand of colours, and each company a flag. The cavalry formed a division, composed of a staff and eight companies of 100 men each, who received pay, commanded by a captain, a lieutenant, sub-lieutenant, a flag-sergeant and four sergeants, 4 brigadiers and 4 sous-brigadiers, 23 privates, and a trumpeter. From the day of its formation in 1789 till 1791, the National Guard had been subjected to those municipal regulations alone which the citizens had given themselves, or rather which they had accepted as presented to them. But on the 12th June, 1791, the National Assembly began to occupy itself respecting the military duties of the citizens, and, on the report of M. Alex. Lameth, president of the Military Committee, it issued the following decree:—

That all citizens of towns, boroughs, and villages shall

inscribe their names in a register kept for that purpose in the sections of the town to which they belong, or at the hotel of the commune in which they reside; that their male children, on attaining the age of 18 years, shall likewise be inscribed in the said registers, or they shall be excluded from the privilege of carrying arms, as well as from their becoming substitutes. Any citizen, disabled by physical causes from serving in person in the National Guard, may be replaced by another citizen duly qualified, or by one of his own sons duly inscribed in the registers as competent to serve; that all other corps of militia, under whatever name they may have been established, shall be incorporated with the National Guard, and wear the same uniform, serve under the same standard, the same staff; and every other uniform or *cocarde* than that of the National Guard shall be prohibited by the King's proclamation.

At this time, the National Guards had been organized in almost every town throughout France; consequently this decree of the National Assembly served to place the nation on the footing of an armed levy *en masse*. About this time, the famous federation of all the National Guards of the kingdom took place at Paris, which was done by sending thither delegates from the departments. On the 14th July, 1791, a grand *fête* was given in the *Champ de Mars*. An amphitheatre was erected to receive the assembly and the public authorities. The King and the President of the Federation were seated near each other, and the Deputies on each side, the Queen and the court were seated behind the King. In the centre, an altar was raised, on the steps of which were 300 priests, dressed in white surplices and *tricolored scarfs*; 60,000 delegates of the National Guards were ranged around them; it was supposed that all the inhabitants of Paris and of the surrounding villages were present. Nay, even persons went from England to witness this *Spectacle*. Detachments of the National Guard and of the troops of the line, carrying their colours and an *oriflamme*, approached the altar, where

the standards were consecrated. The Bishop of Autun, M. Talleyrand de Périgord (so distinguished in the annals of the Revolution) performed High Mass to the sound of near 2,000 instruments. M. de Lafayette, in his quality of Major-General of the Federation, after receiving the orders of the King, took the oath of allegiance in the following terms: "We solemnly swear to be for ever "faithful to the nation, to the law, and to the King; to "maintain, to the utmost of our power, the Constitution "decreed by the National Assembly, and accepted by the "King; to protect conformably to the laws, the safety of "persons and property, the free circulation of grain and "provisions in the interior of the kingdom, the collecting of the public contributions of every description, "and to remain united to the body corporate of the kingdom, by the indissoluble ties of brotherhood." At this moment, the air resounded as with a clap of thunder, by "*je le jure!*" from all the federates. At the period we are writing, we can safely say M. de Lafayette was no perjurer, and that he was always consistent.

A short time before the Revolution of 1830, Charles X said to some of his courtiers that there were in all France only two men consistent during the whole period of the Revolution. These were himself and M. de Lafayette.

On the 19th July, 1791, the National Assembly decreed that the uniform of the National Guards should be the same throughout France. On the 29th September, the Constituent Assembly passed a new decree on the subject of the National Guard, so minute and comprehensive in its details, as to form a complete code for their organization and discipline throughout the kingdom. The decree was divided into five sections. The first regulated the eligibility of citizens; the second determined their organization; the third prescribed their special functions; the fourth fixed the order of the service; and the fifth and last established the rules of discipline.

The most striking feature of this law is the justice with

which it is drawn up. The service of the National Guard is strictly speaking an impost payable in kind, and should consequently bear equally on every citizen capable of serving, without distinction; those who were incapable being bound to pay for a substitute, and none but persons paying a tax equal to three days' labour being liable to serve as a National Guard.

After the Revolution of the 10th August, 1792, the National Guard of Paris seemed to have been swallowed up in the vortex of insurrection. The organisation which had been given to the National Guard by the Constituent Assembly appeared to the jacobins, who had at this period usurped the direction of public affairs, a formidable barrier to their sinister views. Royalty having been abolished, and a Republic established in its place, the commune of Paris (at the head of which were Danton, Robespierre, Marat, etc.) therefore thought fit not only to alter the regulations and discipline of the National Guard, but even to give it a new denomination. On the 21st August, 1792, a decree was passed by these self-elected rulers, for a new organisation of these citizen-soldiers, who were henceforth to be called "*la Garde municipale*," and to be divided into forty-eight sections, which took the title of *sections armées*. But these changes in the National Guard did not last long, as will be seen hereafter. The number of companies in each section was in proportion to its population. Each company was composed of 126 individuals, including officers and non commissioned officers. Each section had a commandant in chief, a commandant *en* second, an adjutant, and ensign; and there was a commandant-general for all the sections collectively. The decree ordered that there should be one or more companies of cavalry and artillery in each section. It was further decreed that a distinct corps should be raised of cavalry, to be called National Volunteers, and another of foot soldiers, to serve in the camp formed in Paris.

On the 2d September the most horrid scenes of wanton

barbarity convulsed the capital, and the most cold-blooded massacres perpetrated by a horde of ruffians on poor defenceless prisoners. The National Guard was an object of their blood-thirsty rage; a vast number of them were arrested, disarmed, and butchered without mercy. Thus the National Guard or "*sections armées*," once more ceased to exist. A considerable number of them, who had escaped however the massacres of September took refuge under the banners of the troops of the line.

By a law of the 1st Pluviose an III (January 1795), after the fall of Robespierre and his satellites, the National Convention (finding public opinion turned against the jacobins in consequence of their horrid excesses), decreed the re-establishment of the National Guard of Paris. It at first ordered the re-election of the officers and non-commissioned officers, leaving it to the discretion of the citizens to retain such as they considered worthy of their confidence, and exclude such as were obnoxious to them. The privates of each company were to name their own captains, lieutenants, sub-lieutenants, and sergeants, and these appointed the staff. The adjutants-general of each section being the only officers paid, the Convention reserved their nomination to itself. About three months after this, the Convention regulated by a decree the special organisation of the National Guard of Paris. It decreed that it should be composed of infantry and cavalry, and that it should be divided into battalions of 761 men each, to be furnished by the forty-eight sections of Paris according to the population of each. Each battalion was to be composed of ten companies, each company divided into two platoons, and each platoon into two squads. Each battalion to have its staff. A company of cannoniers was granted to each section to be attached to the first battalion under the orders of a major of brigade. The sections were united in divisions of four each, and Paris divided into 12 arrondissements. The mounted National Guard was fixed at 2,400 men, 200 to be furnished by each arrondissement; they were divided

into three brigades, composed of four squadrons each, one for each arrondissement; each squadron to have two companies, and each division two squadrons. The Convention having thus regulated the new organisation of the National Guards of Paris, settled the relation between it and the civil authorities. It placed it under the orders of the *comité de la guerre*, and directed that it should be employed to maintain public order and protect the persons and property of the citizens. There remained still an important measure to be adopted, which was to restore the National Guard to the principle of its institution, by dispensing from its service all persons not having the means to serve gratuitously. By this wise regulation the service of journeymen and labourers was dispensed with, the pay formerly given to the indigent was implicitly revoked, and a class of persons forming the "*compagnies du centre*," who were at the disposal of every faction, and frequently influenced the whole corps, were excluded from the ranks.

The Government of the Directory, soon after its installation, promulgated a new law relative to the organisation of the National Guard in the departments. By this law, which is nearly the same as that which formerly existed, excepting that the departmental *Garde Nationale* were to have no artillery, citizens were to convoke a meeting annually for the election of their officers, but which could not be done without the authority of the municipality, which itself presided at the election.

When Bonaparte assumed the reins of Government on the 18th Brumaire 1799, he forbade the convocation of any meeting for the election of officers of the National Guards; and as this body had no chiefs, nor any legal means of electing others, it died in this instance a natural death!

In 1806, fearing that the conscription would not furnish him with a sufficient number of soldiers to fight his battles and defend the frontier towns, Bonaparte thought once more of having recourse to the National Guards, which he reimbodied, but only in those departments

which appeared the most exposed to an attack from the enemy, viz. *la Lys, Pas-de-Calais, la Somme,* and *le Nord.*

In 1809, when Bonaparte was at Vienna, the English made a descent on the Island of Walcheren, with an army under the command of the Earl of Chatham, who menaced France with an invasion, the result of which is but too well known. The arch-chancellor Cambacérès being left at the head of the Government during the absence of his imperial master, upon the suggestion of Fouché, minister of police, ordered the National Guard in several departments to be formed into moveable columns and placed under the command of certain senators whose devotedness to the Imperial Government could be relied on, and they accordingly marched against the enemy; at the same time orders were given to form 12 garrison battalions called, *Cohortes sédentaires,* for the protection of the capital, and Frochot, the prefect of the department of the Seine, was intrusted with their organisation. As soon as this measure was made known to Bonaparte, he ordered the disbanding of the National Guard, and Fouché, who had advised the measure, was dismissed from the ministry. He felt in fact, by the proceeding, his imperial power compromised in two ways; first, it was discovered to the French nation that it could defend itself without the assistance of an imperious master; and, secondly, it had placed arms in the hands of men who from their situation hated tyranny.

The sanguinary campaigns in Russia and Germany having drained the country to furnish victims to one man's ambition, he was forced to have again recourse to a new organisation of the National Guard, which he divided into *premier ban, second ban,* and *arrière-ban.* He placed in the *premier ban* all such men as he wished to make soldiers, and promised them they should never be forced to march beyond the frontiers, but this promise was no better fulfilled than many others emanating from the same source. The two others remained in their de-

partments. At length a storm began to lower over the *dynastie napoléonienne*, and Bonaparte found the fallacy of his boast, "that France was more in want of him than he "was in want of France;" for on the 8th January, 1814, he found it necessary to give a new organisation to the National Guard of Paris, which was formed into twelve legions, each legion composed of four battalions and twenty companies, and was restricted to serve within the limits of their *arrondissemens* and *quartiers*.

The commandant-general was the ephemeral King Joseph, elder brother of Napoleon; aides-major-generals, the grand Chamberlain Count Montesquiou, the Chamberlain Duke de Montmorency, and the Count Hullin, Commandant of the city of Paris; adjutants, the Duke of Brancas, Count Germain, and the banker Tourton. The colonels of the different legions were, the Duke of Choiseul, Count Regnault de Saint-Jean-d'Angely, Baron Hottinguer, Count Jaubert, Count de Murinais, the Marquis de Fraguier, Count de Brevanes, and Messrs. Lenoir, de Gravelle, Salleron, manufacturers, and M. Acloque, the commandant of the ancient National Guard.

When the allied armies invested Paris in 1814, the National Guards were called out; some were armed with muskets, some with fowling pieces and carabines, and others with pikes, for the defence of the capital and the maintenance of order. When Bonaparte left Paris, he published a pathetic address to the National Guard, saying he left his wife and child under their protection. The ex-king Joseph published the following *placard* as commandant in chief, which was posted on all the walls of Paris: "*Parisiens, ne craignez rien, je reste parmi "vous.*"

It is worth remarking, that notwithstanding this warlike *fanfaronnade*, his majesty, as well as all the rest of the staff who were courtiers of Napoleon, shewed that they were *In pace leones, in prælio cervi*, as they galloped off with the empress and her son to Blois, and left the imperial city of Paris to its fate.

The *Garde Nationale*, when thus deserted by its superior officers, and left principally to the command of merchants and shopkeepers, acted with considerable firmness, and on the 30th of March, assisted by the students of the Polytechnic School, defended many of the heights of Paris with great bravery and enthusiasm.

On the night of the 30th and 31st they found themselves, however, in the greatest embarrassment as the whole of the staff had fled, and the troops of the line, they were informed, had capitulated to the enemy. On entering Paris, the Austrian *generalissimo* Prince Schwartzenberg issued a proclamation in the name of all the allies to the following effect: "That it was not their intention to meddle with the Government, and in consequence they invited the inhabitants of Paris to declare what kind of Government they wished for, and promised not only to acknowlege it, but even to assist them (if necessary) with their forces to establish it." But public opinion had become so depressed by fourteen years of despotism and corruption, that this manifesto was listened to with great distrust by the mass of the people. They were afraid to make a candid declaration of their wish to get rid of the tyranny of Napoleon. At length the emperor of Russia, and king of Prussia pronounced the re-establishment of the family of the Bourbons on the throne of France. The Senate having pronounced the deposition of Napoleon, they created a provisional Government, and the internal police of the metropolis was confided to the National Guard, as a body to whose integrity the security of the citizens could be best confided, and who set the example of displaying the white cocarde. The Count d'Artois, afterwards Charles X, found on his entering Paris no other military than the National Guard; and on being elected lieutenant general of the kingdom until the arrival of his brother Louis XVIII, he adopted its uniform as his costume, and it became his guard of honour at the palace of the Tuileries. After the arrival of Louis XVIII, the National Guard was charged exclusively with

the duty of the palace until the 25th of June. A change took place in consequence of those on duty having left their post to take some refreshment, and on their return they found their arms placed without the doors of the antichamber, and the *gardes-du corps* had taken charge of their post. In fact the confidence which was at first reposed in this corps of citizens had become weakened by degrees; indeed, we have been assured that though *cartouches* were distributed to the *Gardes du Corps* on duty, none were ever issued to the National Guard, nor were their pieces ever allowed to be charged, although their station at the Tuileries was called *un poste d'honneur*. However, when Bonaparte returned from Elba, and the defection of the troops of the line was certain, recourse was had to the National Guard of Paris for the defence of the Monarchy. The twelve legions were formed into brigades, and being called out on the 17th of March, were reviewed by *Monsieur* on the Boulevards, the Place Vendôme, and in the Gardens of the Luxembourg, who harangued them with great animation, and concluding his address to their fidelity with these words: "*Que ceux "d'entre vous qui veulent marcher à la défense de leur "Roi légitime sortent des rangs!!* Let those who are de- "termined to march in defense of their legitimate King "advance in front of the ranks." Of the legion of 2,000 men assembled in the place Vendôme, composed of many holding places under Government, ten or a dozen only advanced in front. Of the legion assembled in the gardens of the Luxemburg only *one* solitary individual obeyed the call of the Prince; but on observing his solitary position almost instantly returned to the ranks. Of the sixth legion, composed of 1,800 men (among whom were many of the inhabitants of the *rue St.-Denis*, and who had shown so much enthusiasm on the first day of the Restoration of the Bourbons), only *three* answered the appeal of MONSIEUR by advancing a few paces in front. The legions composed of the inhabitants of the *Faubourg St.-Antoine* (principally petty shopkeepers) shewed the

least loyalty of all the legions. The Colonel was the only man who offered to defend the Royal Government. The other legions shewed no more devotedness to the Bourbons than those we have mentioned, although in a work, published in 1816, entitled "*Quarante heures de garde au Château des Tuileries pendant les journées des* 19 *et* 20 *mars* 1815," it is stated that *eighty* men left their ranks, and stepped in front, when addressed by their Prince and *Commandant en chef*, from the company of M. now Duke de Cazes, inspired perhaps by the loyalty of that gentleman, who was their Colonel.

On the day of the 20th March, Paris presented a most singular aspect. The Royal Government had virtually ceased to exist, and the Imperial Government had not, as yet, been restored or proclaimed. There were no spies, no gendarmes, no inspectors nor commissaries, no prefect nor Minister of Police, and yet there was no riot. A few patroles of National Guards only were seen parading here and there, to whom was left the charge of maintaining tranquillity in the metropolis. The Parisians, however, soon recovered themselves from their temporary stupor, and all appeared gaiety and content during the short *interregnum*. But no sooner was the approach of Bonaparte and his army known, than a sudden gloom spread throughout the city; such was the state of Paris, when Bonaparte made his entry. On arriving at the Tuileries, he found every man at his post; controllers of the house-hold, *maîtres d'hôtel*, butlers, cooks, scullions, chamberlains, valets and porters, nothing was wanting. The Government was no less complete than the anti-chamber and the kitchen. Napoleon found his Counsellors of State, his Ministers, Police Officers, Military Commandants, and hundreds of courtiers in humble array, who, on the 19th, had sworn fidelity to the *legitimate Monarch*, and, on the 20th, took the oath of allegiance to an *illegitimate usurper!*

Lucien Bonaparte took possession of the *Palais-Royal*, the residence of the Duke of Orleans, where he seized all

the plate, linen, and in fact all he could find, with the same rapacity as the Cossacs had done.

Desirous of commencing his new reign by some popular act, Napoleon began by publishing a decree on the 23d of March, annulling several Royal Ordonnances relative to the creation of an *état-major* of the National Guard, whose authority was to have extended all over the kingdom, and another decree of the 26th March, by which he elected a Commandant-general and a new Staff of the National Guard of Paris, which he reorganized. A third decree relating to that body, among other modifications, enacted that every legion of the *Garde Nationale*, when serving out of its own district, should be subjected to the same military regulations as the troops of the line. In fact, it was his intention to have raised an armed *levée en masse*. He thought that, on the approach of the allies, the whole nation would have shown the same enthusiasm as when the Duke of Brunswick entered the French territory in 1792. But he found himself egregiously mistaken; at that epoch the French were fighting for liberty; but now they would have been combatting to establish a tyrant on the throne, and to support and preserve the titles and ill-gotten wealth of his myrmidons.

It must be acknowledged, that on all occasions during the *hundred days* the National Guard of Paris and of the departments used every endeavour to maintain public order and tranquillity. After the battle of Waterloo, which led to the second abdication and final downfal of Napoleon, when the Allies a second time besieged Paris, the National Guard behaved with much propriety, and conducted themselves most honourably, not like the preceding invasion, when by their impotent resistance they ran the risk of having the capital taken by storm.

We shall here beg leave to add the sentiments of M. Ch. Comte, a well known liberal in the best sense of the word, from his excellent work printed in 1827, entitled "*Histoire de la Garde Nationale de Paris*,

depuis l'époque de sa fondation jusqu'à l'Ordonnance du 29 Avril 1827," to which publication we are indebted for many particulars relative to that corps. Speaking of the second abdication of Napoleon, M. Comte observes, "Bonaparte might be brave in the field of "battle, because he had contracted warlike habits; but "military courage is so common in France, that a sol- "dier or a General who did not possess it would pass "for a phenomenon. If as a soldier Bonaparte was "brave, as a citizen he was certainly the greatest coward "in all France!

"An assembly which deliberated in public was capable "of filling his soul with dismay. His invincible ten- "dency to despotism was not so much the effect of a "love of power, as the effect of the dread which he had "of every liberal institution. A Municipality freely "elected appeared to him as being dangerous to his Em- "pire; a journal that was not subjected to a severe cen- "sorship was sufficient to make him tremble! It was "absolutely necessary for his mental tranquillity that all "France, from the schoolboy to the legislator, from the "simple agent of police to the prefect of a department, "should be subjected to military law. His cowardice "was manifest on many occasions, but particularly when, "after he left his whole army at Waterloo (we may ven- "ture to add in Egypt and in Russia), he found himself "without the support of bayonets. This man, who by "his own authority, so audaciously invaded the Tuile- "ries, when by the support of an army he had created "himself First-Consul, and afterwards Emperor, dared "not face the Assembly of the Representatives of the Na- "tion, because he had no longer an army to confide in."

On the 3d of July, Paris capitulated to the Anglo-Prussian army; and when the French army retired behind the Loire, the interior service of Paris and of all the towns in the department was confided exclusively to the National Guard and the Municipal *Gendarmerie,* until the return of Louis XVIII to his capital. It is fit here to remark,

that of all the *pretended royalists*, we have not heard the name of one who had the fidelity or the courage to risk one drop of his blood in defence of the Bourbons, or to prevent Bonaparte marching to Paris. The greater number left Paris, and contented themselves with engaging the Royalists who remained in the capital to continue quiet until they should receive from them the signal to *show* themselves. Up to the 6th of July, however, the day the Allies arrived, no such signal had been discovered.

As soon as Bonaparte's power was destroyed, all classes began to manifest their dissatisfaction towards the Government; one party thought it too *democratic*, and another considered it *trop royaliste*. This spirit, of course, insinuated itself into the National Guard, more especially into that of Paris. The first manifestation of this feeling took place at the Chamber of Deputies in 1823. It will be recollected that M. Manuel, in consequence of an inflammatory and seditious speech delivered in the Chamber, had been expelled by the vote of a large majority. The President requested him to withdraw, but he declared he would not, and that nothing but force should compel him to quit his post. Orders were given to a sergeant of the National Guard, which at that time exclusively did duty at the Chamber, to arrest Manuel, but this he positively refused to do, and the Deputy was dragged out by the Gendarmerie. Sergeant Mercier, the person who had disobeyed orders, was struck off the muster-roll of his legion by a royal ordonnance; but, for his mutinous conduct, he was felicitated by his comrades, and received a number of valuable presents, as tokens of their approbation of his conduct, which sufficiently evinced the spirit of the corps.

On the 29th of April 1827, when the Ministers were constantly assailed by the liberals, for the protection which it was pretended they had given to the Jesuits and to the clergy in general, his Majesty Charles X. reviewed the National Guard of Paris in the Champ-de-Mars. It

was apprehended that at this review the disaffected would excite a disturbance. On the King's arrival on the ground, surrounded by a numerous staff and an immense body of mounted Gendarmes, he was greeted with the cries of "*Vive le Roi!*" but on passing through the lines, to this salutation was added by many of the *Gardes Nationaux* the cry of "*Vive la Charte! à bas les Ministres! à bas les Jésuites!*" His Majesty with great calmness and dignity replied, "*I come here to receive homage, not lessons.*" On the return of the National Guards to their several quarters, those who passed the hotel of the Minister of Finances shouted "*à bas Villèle! à bas les Jésuites!*" and when they came in front of the hotel of the *Garde des Sceaux*, they with equal violence vociferated "*à bas Peyronnet! à bas les Ministres!*" On the following day, the Ordonnance for the dissolution of the National Guard appeared in the *Moniteur*. The National Guards in the other departments remained in *statu quo*.

It is singular enough that when King Louis Philippe was at Metz in 1831, a deputation of the National Guards of that city waited on his Majesty to expostulate with him on the march of his Ministry, the *juste milieu;* to which the King replied, "*La Garde Nationale n'a pas le droit de délibérer,*" and turned his back on these military citizens.

Soon after the Revolution of 1830, the Chamber of Deputies, in pursuance of the pledge contained in the Charter, proceeded to the reorganisation of the National Guards throughout the kingdom. Two *projets de loi* were presented by the Government, the one for the purpose of embodying such portions of the civic force as were immediately to be armed and regimented; the other for the classification of the rest of the population capable of bearing arms, so as to enable the Government, in case of emergency, to embody this more considerable portion of the civic force under the name of *Garde nationale mo-*

bile. The committee to whom the ministerial projects were referred contained the names of the late General Lamarque, General Mathieu Dumas, M. Lepelletier d'Aulnay, and M. Charles Dupin, whose great attainments in all that relates to the statistics of the country suggested him as the chairman and reporter of the committee. In the course of the investigation which followed, an infinity of alterations and amendments were proposed, first in the committee, and afterwards in the Chamber, but in substance the law, as ultimately adopted, is very much the same as it originally issued from the bureaux of the minister of the interior. It was carried through both Chambers during the ministry of M. Laffitte, but it did not receive the royal assent till the 22d of March, so that in the *Bulletin des lois* it is countersigned by M. Casimir Périer as minister of the interior, and by M. Barthe as keeper of the seals.

In the preamble of the law the objects of the institution of the National Guard are declared to be, the defence of constitutional royalty, of the Charter, and the rights which it consecrates; the enforcement of obedience to the laws, the preservation and re-establishment of public order and tranquillity; the seconding of the troops of the line in the defence of the coasts and frontiers and the assuring the independance of France and the integrity of her territory. As a specimen of the special pleading in which the French deputies indulge, it may here be mentioned that a long debate arose in the committee, and was afterwards renewed in the Chamber, on the merits of an amendment which had for its object the substitution of the words "in order to assure," for the phrase "and the assuring," as it now stands in the last member of the sentence which has just been quoted. It is further declared in the preamble, in terms which form a paraphrase on the celebrated "*principe constitutionnel*" of the National Assembly of 1790, "*La force armée est essentiellement obéissante*," that any deliberation by the National Guard on the affairs of

the state, of the department, or the commune, is an injury to public freedom, and an offence against the Government and the constitution.

The details of the law are divided into six titles, each title being subdivided into sections, and these again into paragraphs in numerical order.

The first title contains such general arrangements as are suggested by the nature of the service. It declares that every Frenchman not specially exempted is liable to serve. It divides the duties into those of ordinary service within the interior of the commune, of the service of detachments beyond that territory, and into the service of detached corps required to second the troops of the line within the limits prescribed in the preamble. In this title also the power of suspending or dissolving the National Guard in particular districts is conferred on the crown; but it is at the same time provided, that such portion of the civic force as may have thus been suspended or dissolved shall be reorganised within a year, unless in the mean time a law be passed to prolong that interval. The prefect also is invested with a provisional power of suspension, in case the National Guards shall resist the legal requisitions of the authorities, or shall interfere in their proceedings, whether municipal, administrative, or judicial in their character. This provisional power of the prefect is limited to two months. Since the period of the general reorganisation of the National Guard, these suspensive powers have not remained a dead letter, as witness the cases of Lyons, Grenoble, Perpignan, Carcassonne, Marseilles, and Colmar, and on two different occasions the artillery of Paris. The National Guards are placed under the jurisdiction of the civil authorities in the following order—first, the mayor of the commune; next, the sub-prefect of the arrondissement; then, the prefect of the department; and, finally, the minister of the interior. When called on to act in conjunction with the troops of the line, they become subject

for the period to the jurisdiction of the military authorities.

The period of liability is from the age of twenty to sixty; and foreigners, by the acquisition of real property, the exercise of a trade, or the admission to the enjoyment of civil rights in France, become equally liable with natives to the service of the National Guard. Among the exemptions from the service are magistrates, ecclesiastics, and military men on active service, the officers of the customs and of the police force; and among those excluded are such as have been condemned to punishments inferring infamy. A regular census of all who are liable to serve is appointed to be made annually in the month of January, the matriculated register of which is to be deposited with the secretary of the mayor of each commune, where it is at all times to be open to the inspection of every inhabitant of the commune.

After the registers have thus been made up, it becomes the duty of the "*conseil de recensement*" to distinguish between such as are liable to the ordinary service and such as are to be inscribed on the list of the reserve. The general rule is, that all who are charged with the *contribution personnelle* are liable to the ordinary service, and that others are placed on the lists of the reserve, but in practice a large discretion is given to the "*conseil de recensement.*" Domestic servants for instance, are never inscribed on the lists of the guards on ordinary service. The decisions of the "*conseil de recensement*" are liable to be reviewed by a "*jury de révision,*" consisting of the "*juge de paix*" as permanent president, and twelve jurors drawn by lot from a list of all the officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates able to read and write, and above 25 years of age. This jury cannot act unless seven at least be present, and their decisions are not valid unless concurred in by an absolute majority of the whole.

The military formation of the national guards in each commune is by subdivisions of companies, by companies,

battalions, and legions; that of the cavalry by subdivisions of squadrons, and by squadrons. Each battalion is to have its flag, each squadron its standard. The ordinary strength of a company is from 60 to 200 men, and each battalion is to consist of not less than four and not more than eight companies. In such towns and cantons as furnish at least two battalions of 500 men each, they may be united by the royal authority into a legion.

When the national guards proceed to the nomination of their officers, they assemble without arms and in plain clothes, in presence of the president of the "*conseil de recensement*," who in such cases is assisted by the two senior members of the council. The election takes place by ballot, and is decided by a majority of votes, the relative majority being sufficient for the nomination of corporals and sergeants, but an absolute majority by successive scrutinies being requisite to the validity of the election of superior officers.

Another form is resorted to for the nomination of the *chef de bataillon* and the standard-bearer. The officers of the battalion are required to meet an equal number of non-commissioned officers and privates under the presidency of the Mayor of the commune, the non-commissioned officers and privates being named for that purpose by the members of the companies to which they belong. In this body the right of election is vested, and an absolute majority is required to validate their proceedings.

Chiefs of legions and lieutenant-colonels are appointed by the king from a list of ten candidates presented by an aggregate meeting of all the officers of the legion, and of all the non-commissioned officers and privates from the different battalions who have been authorized to act in the choice of *chef de bataillon* and standard-bearer. Majors, adjutants, surgeons, and aides-major are named directly by the king.

In all cases the elections are for three years, and at the end of that period the same individuals become again eligible.

On the complaint of the mayor and the *sous-préfet*, any officer may be suspended from his rank and duties by a decree of the prefect, containing the reasons on which it is founded, and sanctioned by the council of the prefecture, the officer being previously heard in his defence. The decree must immediately be transmitted to the minister of the interior, and the suspension may be prolonged by a royal ordonnance. If not restored within a year, a new election must take place.

The uniform of the national guard is prescribed by royal ordonnance. For the arms delivered to them each individual is required to sign a receipt in the books of the municipality. The care of these arms is at the risk of the individual, but accidental damage sustained on duty is to be defrayed by the commune. The individual is responsible for the safe custody of his arms, which in all cases remain the property of the state, to preserve evidence of which they are marked and numbered.

The expenditure of the national guard is regulated by the municipal authorities. The ordinary charges are for the purchase of flags, drums, and trumpets, the repair of arms, and the keeping of registers and other office expenses. In large towns extraordinary expenses are allowed as an indemnity to the commanding officer for necessary outlays, and in some cases for the clothing and pay of drummers and trumpeters.

The penalties to which a member of the national guard is exposed form a prominent branch of the law. At the discretion of any officer in command of a post, a national guard who has absented himself without leave, or has failed to answer the *appel*, may be called on out of his turn to do duty as sentinel. If he appear in a state of drunkenness, make a disturbance, or provoke to acts of violence, he may be placed in confinement in the prison of the post till the next change of guard.

The penalties which it is competent for the council of discipline to inflict are, reprimand, arrest for three days at most, imprisonment for three days at most, and degra-

dation. If there be no prison in the commune, the penalty of imprisonment may be commuted into a fine equal to the value of the labour of the party for a period varying from one to ten days. Imprisonment is reserved for cases of disobedience of orders, and inferior penalties for minor offences.

A council of discipline is established for every battalion, in every commune where the guards are not sufficiently numerous to form a battalion, and for every company where more than one commune is necessary to the formation of that company. In the two latter cases the council is composed of five judges, a captain, president, a lieutenant or second lieutenant, a sergeant, a corporal, and a private. For a battalion the council consists of seven persons, viz. the *chef de bataillon* president, a captain, a lieutenant or second lieutenant, a sergeant, a corporal, and two privates.

In large towns, where legions have been created, a council is established for the trial of superior officers and officers of the staff, consisting of the *chef de légion* president, two *chefs de bataillon*, two captains, and two lieutenants, or second lieutenants. When the accused is a commissioned officer, two officers of his own rank are to be called to the council in place of the two last members, although it should be necessary to call them from separate cantons. A *rapporteur*, with the rank of captain or lieutenant, and a secretary with the rank of lieutenant or second lieutenant, is appointed to each council by the *sous-préfet*, from lists of three candidates furnished by the *chef de bataillon* or *chef de légion*. The councils of discipline are permanent. When they consist of seven members, they can only act when five are present, and if of five, when three. Complaints to the council are transmitted by the commanding officer of the corps to which the council belongs, and are by them referred to the reporting officer, who sends the accused before the next sitting of the council. Individual members are liable to a fine of five francs in case of absence after receiving notice from the reporting officer. The accused may appear by himself or by counsel, and the sittings are pub-

lic under pain of nullity. The only appeal from the council of discipline is to the court of cassation, and the only grounds of appeal are incompetency, excess of power, or contravention of the law. After sentence, three days are allowed to the accused to make his appeal, and if it amounts to imprisonment, execution of the judgment is in the mean time suspended.

The national guards cannot be called on to act beyond the limits of the commune, arrondissement, or department to which they belong, except for ten days, on the requisition of the *sous-préfet*, twenty days on that of the *préfet*, and sixty days in virtue of a royal ordonnance. Any national guard who refuses to obey such a requisition, or who quits his detachment without leave, may be carried before the tribunal of correctional police and punished with a month's imprisonment, besides being degraded if an officer or non-commissioned officer.

National guards wounded while on duty are entitled to the same relief, the same pensions and rewards, to which military men are entitled.

When detached corps are formed from the national guard for the purpose of co-operating with the troops of the line for the defence of the posts or frontiers, or for strengthening fortified towns, the period of service is limited to a year, and it is only when the chambers are not sitting that such detached corps can be formed in virtue of the royal authority. In selecting the individuals for the formation of these detached corps, the government begins with volunteers, then bachelors, all being considered bachelors who marry before the age of 23, then widowers without children, then married men without children, and finally married men with children. The elder brother of a family of minors, the only son or grandson of a widow, of a blind father, or of one seventy years of age, takes rank between married men without children and married men with children. For this species of service a national guard may send a substitute from eighteen to forty years of age, for whom the principal is responsible.

During service in detached corps, the national guards receive the same pay and rations as the troops of the line; for refusing to join a detached corps, the punishment is two years', and for quitting it without leave three years' imprisonment.

The only persons of the national guards that receive pay are the adjutants of legions and battalions; the former 2,500 f., and the latter 1,500 fr. per annum. Drummers and fifers are also paid. The pay of the commandant-General of Paris is 40,000 fr. per ann.; under the old government it was 100,000 fr. The number of the national guards of Paris and the other places in the department of the Seine is about 100,000 men, and in all France one million, not including the national guard mobile.

At the revolution of 1830, M. de Lafayette was appointed general commandant of all the national guards in France; but at present there is no general commandant. Marshal Lobau commands those of the department of the Seine only.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

[From Mr. Okey's excellent work already quoted.]

Nothing is more desirable, in a commercial country, than simplicity and unity in weights and measures. Innovations, even when ultimately beneficial, particularly those regarding trade, are always attended with difficulty, and sometimes with danger; but, in time of peace, when such beneficial changes may be carried into effect accompanied by less inconvenience, it must always be a matter of surprise that the unity of weights and measures is not established upon a given principle, and enforced by law. A partial improvement has lately been made in Great Britain, by establishing a standard imperial bushel measure; but the permission to use local weights and measures, or those founded on special agreement, although even proportioned to a new standard, tends to add to the confusion of former usages. Unity and simplicity, with authority and punishment to enforce them, are the greatest requisites in the establishment of a standard.

Uniformity of weights and measures is established throughout France on the decimal principle. The Minister of the Interior, by a circular dated October, 1806, and also 21st January, 1816, recommended the immediate and entire cessation, in all the departments, of the use of the old weights and measures. These have been followed by *Ordonnances du Roi*, the last of which is dated July, 1826. Habit and prejudice, however, for some time opposed the strict conformity to the decrees and *Ordonnances*, notwithstanding the simplicity of the decimal principle; but the system is now enforced with few exceptions.

The new weights and measures according to the decimal system are illustrated by the following Tables, which, when afterwards compared with the weights and measures used in England, will give the British subject an idea of their proportions."

TABLE OF THE NEW DECIMAL MEASURES,

Explaining their nomenclature and their relative proportions to the old measures in France.

THE RELATION OF MEASURES of each kind TO THE PRINCIPAL OR PRIMITIVE MEASURE, IN LETTERS.	IN FIGURES.	FIRST SYLLABLES of the word which indicates the proportion of the principal measure.	PRINCIPAL MEASURES, OR MEASURES OF UNITY. Length.	Solid or Liquid.	Weight.	Land.	Fire-wood.
Ten thousand	10,000	*Myria*	*Mètre.*	*Litre.*	*Gramme.*	*Are.*	*Stère.*
Thousand	1,000	*Kilo*					
Hundred	100	*Hecto*					
Ten	10	*Déca*					
One	1						
Tenth	0.1	*Déci*					
Hundredth	0.01	*Centi*					
Thousandth	0.001	*Milli*					
Proportion of the principal measures with each other with the arc of the meridian.			The ten millionth part of the distance from the pole to the equator.	A cube *décimètre.*	The weight of a cube *centimètre* of distilled water.	One hundred square *mètr.*	A cube *mètre.*
Proportions of the principal measures with the ancient measures.			Three feet 11 lines and a fraction.	A pint and 1/15 or a *litron* and 1/4 thereabout.	18 *grains* and 84/1000.	Two square *perches,* forest and water measure.	About a *demi-voie* or 1/4 of a *corde,* forest and water measure.

SYSTEMATIC NAME.	EXPLANATION in the OLD HABITUAL MEASURE.	DECIMAL or FRACTIONAL VALUE.
ROAD MEASURE.		
Myriamètre	*Lieue* or league	10,000 *mètres.*
Kilomètre	*Mille* or mile	1,000 *mètres.*
LONG MEASURE.		
Décamètre	*Perche* or perch	
Mètre		The fundamental unity of weights and measures, ten millionth part of the quarter of the terrestrial meridian or arc.
Décimètre	*Palme*	One-tenth of a *mètre.*
Centimètre	*Doigt*	One-hundredth ditto.
Millimètre	*Trait*	One-thousandth ditto.
LAND MEASURE.		
Hectare	*Arpent* or acre	10,000 square *mètres.*
Are	*Perche carrée*	100 ditto.
Centiare	*Mètre*	
LIQUID MEASURE.		
Décalitre	*Veltes*	10 cube *décimètres.*
Litre	*Pinte*	A cube *décimètre.*
Décilitre	*Verre*	One-tenth of ditto.
DRY MEASURE.		
Kilolitre	*Muid*	A cube *mètre*, or 1000 cube *décimètres.*
Hectolitre	*Setier*	100 cube *décimètres.*
Décalitre	*Boisseau*	10 cube *décimètres.*
Litre	*Pinte*	Cube *décimètre.*
SOLID MEASURE FOR FIRE-WOOD.		
Stère		A cube *mètre.*
Décistère	*Solive*	One-tenth of a cube *mètre.*
WEIGHTS.		
	Millier	1000 *livres*, a sea ton weight.
	Quintal	100 ditto, or pounds.
Kilogramme	*Livre*	The weight of water of the size of the cube décimètre contains 10 ounces.
Hectogramme	*Once*	One-tenth of the *livre* contains 10 *gros.*
Décagramme	*Gros*	One-tenth of the *once* contains 10 *deniers.*
Gramme	*Denier*	One-tenth of the *gros* contains 10 *grains.*
Décigramme	*Grain*	One-tenth of the *denier.*

The *mètre* is the fundamental unity of all weights and measures in France: it is a ten millionth part of the arc of the meridian comprehended between the pole and the equator; its length is 3 feet 11 lines and a fraction, about a half of the old measure; it is used whenever the foot or *toise* is employed. The *double mètre* is only about 2 inches longer than the ancient *toise*. The square *mètre* is about 1/4 of the square *toise*: it is used in superficial measure, and is about 10 1/2 square feet—the square *mètre* is the smallest land measure. The cube *mètre* is the solid measure, and replaces the cube *toise*, of which it is about 1/7 part.

A decree of the 12th February, 1812, followed by an *arrêté* of the Minister of the Interior for its execution, dated 28th March, 1812, contains directions to the following effect:—

1. A measure the length of 2 *mètres*, called a *toise*, shall be divided equally into six parts, or feet. A measure the length of 1/6 of a *toise*, or 1/3 of a *mètre*, which shall be called *pied*, or foot, shall be divided equally into twelve parts or inches, and each inch into 12 lines; (this measure entirely supersedes the old foot measure, called *pied de roi*): each of these measures shall be marked on one side with those divisions corresponding with the *mètre*; that is, the *toise*, 2 *mètres*, divided into *décimètres*, and the first *décimètre* into *millimètres*, in all 333 1/3 *millimètres*.

2. All linen, cloth, etc. shall be measured with a measure equal to 12 *décimètres*, which shall be called *aune*, or ell. This measure shall be divided into halves, quarters, eighths, and sixteenths; as also into thirds, sixths, and twelfths: it shall be marked on one side in divisions corresponding with the *mètre* in *centimètres* only; that is, from ten to ten.

3. The measures mentioned in the preceding articles may be made of a single piece, or with a hinge, or in any other convenient manner, provided that the fractional parts are the aliquot parts of the said measures, and can-

not, by any combination, reproduce the old local measures, which these are intended to replace.

4. Grain and other dry matters may be measured, in wholesale and retail, with a measure equal to the 1/8 of the *hectolitre*, which shall be called *boisseau*, and which shall have its double, its half, and its quarter measure: these shall be called, accordingly, besides their corresponding proportion with the *hectolitre*,

The *double boisseau*, or bushel	1/4	of a *hectolitre*.
The *boisseau*	1/8	ditto.
The half *boisseau*	1/16	ditto.
The quarter *boisseau*	1/32	ditto.

5. For the sale by retail of all grain, seeds, flour, peas, beans, etc., the *litre* shall be divided into halves, quarters, and eighths; and each of these measures shall be called by the name proportionate to the *litre*.

6. The measures permitted to be used by the articles 4 and 5 shall be made in wood of a cylindrical form, of a diameter equal to its height.

7. For the sale by retail of wine, spirits, and other liquids, the measures of a fourth, an eighth, and a sixteenth of a *litre* shall be used.

These three last measures shall be made, like all other liquid measures, in pewter, of a fixed standard, their forms to be cylindrical, and of a height double the diameter.

For the sale of milk they shall be in tin, and of a form fitting this kind of measures.

Each of these measures shall be called by its indicative name, according to its proportion to the *litre*.

8. For the sale by retail of all matters and substances the price and the quality of which are regulated by weight, the tradesman shall make use of the following ordinary weights: that is, the *livre*, or pound, equal to a *demi-kilogramme*, or 500 *grammes*, which shall be divided into 16 ounces; the ounce, or sixteenth of the *livre*, or pound, being subdivided into 8 *gros*; the *gros*,

the eighth of an ounce, being again subdivided into 72 *grains*. Each of these weights shall also be subdivided into halves, quarters, and eighths; they shall be called, in addition to the fractional name which they signify by their proportional weight in *grammes*, as follows :—

	grammes.	
The *kilogramme*	1000	0
The *livre*, or pound	500	0
The *demi-livre*	250	0
The *quarteron*	125	0
The *demi-quart*	62	5
The *once*	31	3
The *demi-once*	15	6
The *quart d'once*, or 2 *gros* . .	7	8
The *gros*	3	9

These weights shall be made only in iron or copper; all weights in lead or other matter are forbidden.

9. The weights and measures above mentioned shall not be used in trade until they have been verified in the offices established for that purpose, and stamped with the arms of the kingdom and the annual letter.

10. Models of such weights and measures are sent to the *préfets* of the departments, to serve for verification.

11. The *préfets* will fix the time of verification each year; and, at that period, all tradesmen, etc. are cited, and must be provided with the above-mentioned weights and measures, according to their several trades.

12. All deviations are punishable according to the articles 424, 479, 480, and 481 of the *Code Pénal*, as making use of other weights and measures than those prescribed by the law. Inspectors are appointed by the authorities to make domiciliary visits for the purpose of verification.

13. This system to be taught exclusively in all public schools and seminaries, and to be used in all public and private accounts, which are to express quantities by such legal weights and measures, and not by those hitherto tolerated.

The weights and measures being thus defined and enforced, the British subject in France may obtain some idea of their relative proportions, as well as the relative value of the several commodities bought and sold by them, in opposing the nearest weight and measure used in England. The following proportions, to elucidate the comparison, are taken from a work of the highest authority, *L'Annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes*:—

WEIGHTS.

ENGLISH TROY.	FRENCH.
Grain, equals	0,06477 gramme.
Pennyweight	1,55456 gramme.
Ounce	31,0913 grammes.
Pound troy, imperial	0,3730956 kilogramme.
AVOIRDUPOIS.	
Dram equals	1,7712 gramme.
Ounce	28,3384 grammes.
Pound imperial	0,4534148 kilogramme.
Hundred-weight	50,78246 kilogrammes.
Ton	1015,649 kilogrammes.

FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Gramme, equals	15,438 grains troy. 0,643 pennyweight. 0,03216 ounce troy.
Kilogramme	2,68027 pounds troy. 2,20548 pounds avoirdupois.

LONG MEASURE.

ENGLISH.	FRENCH.
Inch, equals	2,539954 centimètres.
Foot	3,0479449 décimètres.
Yard	0,91438348 mètre.
Pole or perch	5,02911 mètres.
Furlong	201,16437 mètres.
Mile	1609,3149 mètres.

FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Millimètre, equals	0,03937 of an inch.
Centimètre	0,393708 of an inch.
Décimètre	3,937079 inches.
Mètre	39,37079 inches. 3,2808992 feet. 1,093633 yard.
Myriamètre	6,2138 miles.

LIQUID AND DRY MEASURES.

ENGLISH.	FRENCH.
Pint, equals	0,567932 litre.
Quart	1,135864 litre.
Gallon imperial	4,54345794 litres.
Peck	9,0869159 litres.
Bushel, equals	36,347664 litres.
Sack	1,09043 hectolitre.
Quarter	2,907813 hectolitres.
Chaldron	13,08516 hectolitres.

FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Litre, equals	1,760773 pint. 0,2200967 gallon.
Décalitre	2,2009667 gallons.
Hectolitre	22,009667 gallons.

LAND MEASURE.

ENGLISH.	FRENCH.
Square yard, equals	0,836097 mètre carré.
Square rod or perch	25,291939 mètres carrés.
Rood	10,116775 acres.
Acre	0,404671 hectare.

FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Mètre carré, equals	1,196033 square yard.
Are	0,098845 rood.
Hectare	2,47361 acres.

POSTSCRIPT.

LAWS AND REGULATIONS RESPECTING DRAMATIC AUTHORSHIP—RECEIPTS OF THE THEATRES AT PARIS, ETC., ETC.

Managers and proprietors of theatres are absolutely prohibited from the representation of any dramatic work whatever, without the express permission of its author, under the penalty of confiscation of the entire receipts of the house in his favour, on the night on which his piece has been surreptitiously performed. As to the theatres in Paris, a tariff has been adopted, which fixes the specific proportion of the receipts which are to be paid to the author on every night of the representation of his work. At the Théâtre Français, the author, if his piece be of five acts, receives a twelfth part of the net receipts; if of three, an eighteenth; and if of one or two, a twenty-fourth. The Opéra-Comique pays eight and a half per cent, for three act pieces, and six per cent, for those of one or two acts, the amount being divided in equal proportions between author and composer. The proportions paid by the Odéon are the same as those of the Français for tragedies and comedies, and for operas the same as the Opéra-Comique. In consequence of the keen competition which exists among the Theatres on the Boulevards, the Society of Dramatists have found it more for their interest to leave the amount of the author's remuneration to be fixed by special agreement with the proprietors. This remuneration is usually paid, as in London, in a single sum, without reference to the success or failure of the piece, but with this difference in favour of the author, that he is still entitled to the benefit of the law, which prohibits the performance of his work at any other Theatre, either in the capital or the provinces, without his consent. The Nouveautés, the Variétés, the Gymnase, and the Vaudeville, pay three per cent. to the author of each piece they perform, on the receipts for the night of its representation. At the Grand Opera a scale of remuneration is fixed,

which produces the author and composer a specific sum on each night of representation, independent altogether of the amount of the receipts —the composer's share being here much greater than that of the author, and 500 fr. a night being the composer's maximum. In France, however, the chief revenue of the successful dramatist arises from the contributions of the provincial Theatres. For these a tariff has been fixed by the Association which has long existed in France for the protection of the common interests of dramatic authors; by which the managers are required to pay according to a scale, which is graduated with the greatest precision according to the extent and population of the town in which their theatre is situated. The business of this Association is conducted by means of a common agent in Paris, who is placed in communication with the managers of all the theatres in the kingdom, who receives the contributions of the proprietors, and pays them over to the authors as they become due. The greatest facility is produced for the ascertainment of the amount of the receipts, through the operation of the law, which appropriates a certain portion of them to the benefit of the poor, and this too at a period when theatrical property is in such a state, that, like the Circenses of the Romans, it is necessary to provide for it at the public expense. Should any legal provision be ever made in England for the protection of the rights of dramatic authors, from that system of legalised piracy to which they are at present exposed, some principle might be adopted which would secure them a reasonable remuneration, without having recourse to those nightly investigations of the receipts, at the doors of a theatre, which for other purposes are now sanctioned in France, where the author's rights and interest are not extinguished by his death. At one period they extended to his descendants to the second and third generation, and it is not twenty years since the grand-daughter of Corneille derived a considerable revenue from the right she thus possessed in the works of her illustrious ancestor. It has since,

however, been found more convenient to affix a specific limit to this species of inheritance, and at present it ceases at the end of ten years from the period of the author's death.

The most celebrated dramatic authors in tragedy are, Casimir Lavigne, Arnault, father and son, Le Mercier, Alfred de Vigny, Raynouard and Jouy, Baour-Lormian. Comedy—Etienne, Dupaty, Alexandre Duval, Bouilly, Scribe, etc.; in both departments Ancelot and Alexandre Dumas. In melodrame—Caignez and Guilbert de Pixérécourt, who is called the "Shakespeare of the boulevards."—The total number of play writers is 180; it is in vain to name them, and it is not my province to "chronicle small beer."

The musical composers of celebrity are Boieldieu, Auber, and Berton.

The dramatic productions amounted, in 1827, to 192 pieces; in 1828, to 166; in 1829, to 175; in 1830, to 175; and in 1831, to 272.

The only dramatic performers of note are, Ligier, Lockroy, Bocage, Michelot, Armand, Potier, Brunet, Odry, Vernet, Philippe, Bernard-Léon, Arnal, Perlet, Lhéric, Bouffé, the two brothers Lepeintre. Mesdames Mars, Georges, Leverd, Anaïs (the best actress at present in tragedy and comedy), Dorval, Jenny Vertpré, Jenny Colon, Léontine Fay, and Albert.

The most distinguished vocalists are, Nourrit, Levasseur, and Alexis Dupont; Mesd. Cinti, Rigaut, Dorus, and Boulanger.

France at this moment can not boast of any instrumental performers of celebrity. Herz and Kalkbrenner, the well-known pianists, who have been many years in Paris exercising their great talents, are Germans; and Beriot, the violin player, is a Belgian. Lafont, however, the well-known performer on that instrument, is a Frenchman.

Indeed there has been an astonishing falling off in dramatic and musical talent since I first visited Paris in

1801, when the stage was in possession of such names as Talma, (who had then already eclipsed Larive), Saint-Prix, Saint-Phal, Lafond; Mesdames Raucourt and Duchesnois in Tragedy; Molé, Fleury, Michot, Dugazon, Dazincourt, and the younger Baptiste; Mesdames Mars, Sisters Contat, Mezeray, and Bourgoing; Elleviou, Martin, Solié, Dossonville, Gavaudan, Mesdames Phillis, Saint-Aubin and Rolland. Many of these have till now been without rivals. No wonder then that the theatres should not be so well attended as formerly.

The men of literary and dramatic talent, who existed in France at the period I allude to, made us almost forget the despotism of the Government, environed as it was with literary as well as with military *prestige:* whereas now, in 1832, all that we see in society are the *coryphæi* of former revolutions, and their youthful pupils in crime and revolt. The age of Napoleon in 1800 was one of giants—the non-descript age of 1832 is one of corrupted pigmies! Of course there are exceptions; as Paris may still boast of men, who have distinguished themselves in the walks of literature and science, and who with these acquirements possess unblemished private characters.

Prices of admission to the theatres, and the number of seats in each.

At the Grand-Opéra	from 3 fr.	60 c.	to	10 fr.	» c.	Seats 1,937
At the Théâtre-Français	from 1	80	to	6	60	do: 1,520
At the Opéra-Comique	from 1	65	to	6	60	do: 1,720
At the Italian-Opera	from 2	»	to	12	»	do: 1,282
At the Odéon	from 1	50	to	6	»	do: 1,628
At the Gymnase	from 2	»	to	5	»	do: 1,040
At the Nouveautés	from 1	25	to	5	»	do: 1,250
At the Vaudeville	from 1	50	to	5	»	do: 1,257
At the Variétés	from 1	25	to	5	»	do: 1,240
At the Porte-St.-Martin	from »	75	to	5	»	do: 1,803
At the Gaîté	from »	60	to	4	»	do: 1,254
At the Ambigu-Comique	from »	70	to	4	»	do: 1,800
At the Equestrian Circus	from 1	25	to	5	»	do: 1,800
At M. Comte's Theatre	from 1	»	to	5	»	do: 1,000

(At this theatre the performers are children, from 5 to 9 years of age.)

The receipts at the theatres, at balls, concerts, and other places of public amusement in Paris for the last four years have been as follow:—

1827 — Grand-Opéra, 635,210 fr. Théâtre-Français, 641,140 fr. Opéra-Comique, 647,880 fr. Italian-Opera, 268,770. English performances at that theatre three nights a week during two months, 130,000 f. The Odéon, 294,160 fr. The Vaudeville, 423,140 fr. Gymnase, 546,430 fr. Nouveautés, 325,910 fr. Variétés, 412,630. Gaîté, 349,060 fr. Ambigu-Comique, 199,060 fr. Saint-Martin, 550,660 fr. Equestrian Circus, 585,550. Total, 6,155,000 fr. Total for balls, concerts, etc., 617,950 fr.

1828 — Total receipts at the theatres,	6,310,000 fr.	Balls, etc.,	500,000 f.
1829 — Do.	7,200,000	Do.	600,000
1830 — Do.	7,080,000	Do.	460,000

The French and Italian Opera companies perform each only three times a week, all the others every night throughout the year, Sundays not excepted.

From these receipts ten per cent. is paid to the overseers of the poor. A small tax is also paid by the minor theatres to the grand Opera. Although this exaction is founded on an imperial decree, it is nevertheless still enforced. The accounts for 1831 have not yet been made up, but I have been informed that the receipts for that year, owing to the badness of the times, were about two thirds less than those of the preceding year. And bad the times must be, if the Parisians cannot afford to amuse themselves at public spectacles. Indeed three theatres have been closed in 1831, viz. the Opéra-Comique, the Odéon, and the Nouveautés. It has already been noticed that the former government allowed an annual gratuity of 1,460,000 fr. to four theatres in Paris, viz. one million to the Grand-Opera, 200,000 fr. to the Théâtre-Français, and 100,000 fr. each to the Opéra-Comique and the Odéon. The government of 1830 reduced the sum given to

support the theatres by 160,000 fr.; the same grant as formerly has been continued to the Grand-Opéra, and to the Théâtre-Français; but it has been discontinued to the Opéra-Comique and to the Odéon; although the source from which the grant to the theatres is taken remains the same. An annual grant of 80,000 fr. which was made by the late government to the Italian-Opera, has been continued by the present government. The money given to the theatres is taken from the 5 1/2 millions received from the proprietors of the gaming-houses.

I cannot silently pass over the conduct of the liberal brawlers in the Chamber of deputies respecting this disgraceful item in the public revenue. Not a session passed during the government of the Restoration without vehement attacks from the côté gauche directed against Ministers for tolerating these gaming-houses and the lottery, by which many thousand persons lost their property, which led but too often to suicide and every species of crime. It is true that soon after the revolution of 1830 a deputy alluded to the gaming-houses and lotteries, and expressed a hope that the new government, which was to be all perfection, would put them down; since then no further notice has been taken of the subject. But there never was, nor is there now, any disposition in the Ministers to abandon this revenue; they bear in mind the well known answer of Vespasian to Titus, who reproached his father with having imposed a certain tax: "*Lucri bonus odor ex re qualibet.*"

At the "hells" in the Palais-Royal, all persons of both sexes are indiscriminately admitted; but those whose dress proclaim their situations, such as workmen, servants in livery, etc., are supplied from a wardrobe kept there for that purpose, with a proper costume; so that they may decently pass the gates of pandemonium.—A trifling sum is paid for the temporary use of the dress thus borrowed. It is said that no one is allowed to enter there unless they can prove that they are of age, by producing a certificate of their birth. It is not to be supposed that those who are

charged with this examination are very scrupulous about these matters. This is Paris! "the mistress of the civilized world." These nefarious establishments suggest a more appropriate appellation, that of—THE NIGHT CELLAR OF EUROPE.

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